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Primary Sources in Fifth Grade

Social Studies Textbooks:

A Case Study

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Primary Sources in Fifth Grade Social Studies Textbooks: A Case Study

by

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Dedication

I wish to thank my parents Joe and Jane Tomanec for their unwavering love, support, and encouragement while I pursued my Ph.D. at the University of Texas at Austin; without you this would never have been possible.

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Abstract

The work which follows arose from the examination of three fifth grade social studies textbooks widely adopted and accepted in the State of Texas. Within these history textbooks, seven historical events which occurred during the American Revolution were investigated to determine how primary sources are represented in each selected textbook to support a version of the historical event they accompany.

The research question guiding this qualitative study was: How do fifth grade social studies textbooks present primary sources in an American Revolution unit of study. To answer this question, I analyzed the three fifth grade social studies textbooks' American Revolution unit of study. Historical events common to the textbooks and included in the unit of study were Tax Laws, The Boston Massacre, The Boston Tea Party, Paul Revere's Ride, Lexington and Concord, The Battle of Bunker Hill, and The

Declaration of Independence. Within the textbooks' American Revolution units of study, the following primary sources were found: quotes, written documents, photographs, cartoons, posters, maps, artifacts, paintings, and sculpture or statuary.

The researcher discovered three findings related to the representation of primary sources in the fifth grade social studies textbooks. These include the conundrum of fact, monolithic representation, and verisimilitude. Suggestions for improving school history textbooks and opportunities for future research are included.

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Chapter I

Introduction

American history textbooks, as we are told, encourage historical thinking among elementary students via primary sources. According to the "Association of American Publishers in conjunction with the National Education Association, …textbooks are the mainstay of education in the United States" (Abramson, 2002, p. 43). In fact, "78 percent of teachers use textbooks in their classrooms" (p. 43). With this in mind, there arises the need to explore what degree historical thinking, the use of primary sources to research the past, is made available in these texts. According to Spoehr and Spoehr (1994), "Good historical thinking requires more than mastery of facts, it demands a detailed, densely textured analysis of the relations among those facts" (p. 71). The purpose of this study and the research question was examining the American Revolution units in three widely adopted fifth grade American history textbooks serves to inform this research question. This study strives to yield a very real benefit, a reference document for those in education who are concerned about the lack (or absence) of historical thinking incorporated into the curriculum by textbooks. The following chapters will guide the reader through historical thinking, offer an overview of American history textbooks, and discuss research methodology in conjunction with primary sources.

Historical Thinking

Knowing how students interpret American history as they study primary sources is central to understanding historical thinking. Hermeneutics, "the study of interpretive understanding or meaning," allows insight to a student's thought process (Mertens, 2005, p. 12). This process involves a personal interpretation of the given information, rather than a simple

absorption of it. "Historians" conceptualize hermeneutics as "interpreting historical documents to try to understand what the author" meant "to communicate within the time period and culture in which…documents" were "written" (p. 12). Students beginning to develop their own ideas about what happened in America's past also rely upon hermeneutics for understanding.

Historical Thinking and Credibility of Primary Sources

Although historical sources are overwhelmingly credited with being objective, truthful accounts of the past, they are not exempt from human error. Because primary sources are personal written histories, one must remember three things about them; first, they may not be unequivocally accurate, second, they may exclude certain details, and third, they may be rife with particular biases. As such, they must be carefully analyzed.

Yet another consideration about primary sources is that they are almost always from a male point of view, due to the fact that other than a handful of women, men were the ones recording our nation's events. According to VanSledright, the majority of individuals we now study and have studied in the past have the commonality of being "dead, white," and "male" (2002, p. 4). One could go as far as surmise that the history that has actually reached today's public has not only been filtered through time but also through the powers that be, which means that we may no longer know with what intent much of the information was originally published.

The Three Elements of Historical Thinking

Three distinct elements of historical thinking emerge in the literature: student judgment about important historical events, historical epistemology, and the themes of agency, empathy, and moral judgment. There is an abundance of work in the field by well-known scholars that focus on these elements. Vansledright (2002), for example, explains that "historical

thinking…produces the sort of understanding of the past exhibited by those with deep experience" who sort "through a complex regimen of investigative techniques" using "artifacts and documents that can tell stories about the time, place, and events under scrutiny" (p. 6). Upon doing so, students make judgments about the past while determining why an event or events are important. Seixas (1993) sees historical thinking involving "historical epistemology, that is, students' ability to refine, revise, and add to their picture of history, either through new evidence or through reliance on historical authorities" (p. 303). In doing so, students bring past experiences and knowledge to the table in the analysis of the past. This case study parallels Seixas's view of historical thinking..

Student Interpretation

Teachers who practice historical thinking call upon their students to imagine the past and make decisions regarding history. Without such skills as "the imaginative ability to place" themselves "back in time" and make "informed judgments" concerning "historical evidence, knowledge and effort," students would struggle to do so (Bohan and Davis, 1998, p. 174). Historical thinking is unique and important because, unlike other teaching methods, it hands students the reigns and urges them to compare their own thoughts and experiences to those of historical figures from another time and place.

American History Textbooks

Student evaluation of primary sources is a key component of historical thinking, and these primary sources often reside in the American history textbook. Because primary sources selected for publication in textbooks are the basis for historical thinking in the classroom, a discussion of history textbooks is necessary. Listed are nine textbook-related issues pertinent to

this research goal: 1) evaluation, 2) classroom usage, 3) authors, 4) subjectivity and misleading information, 5) content and the origin myth, 6) the Canon Debate, 7) transformative academic knowledge, 8) quality primary source material requirements, and 9) secondary sources. Each of these concepts will be explained and explored further in the accompanying chapters.

The American history textbook basically outlines how teachers and students alike will reach the conclusion which the textbook authors have presented regarding historical information. This includes what primary sources have been included in the textbook and what primary sources have been purposefully excluded. "Consequently, the version of U.S. history that students learn is largely shaped by the selected textbook" (Tice, 1994, p. 29). In effect students are learning different versions of history depending on the selected text. Also, "more experienced teachers" tend "to use textbooks more for reference and background than for discussion or group work" (p. 41). If this is the case, it is of utmost importance that these references be high caliber primary sources.

How Student Historical Thinking is Impacted by Textbook Use

Active learning can bolster student comprehension of history in a way that passive learning might not, however it is often a passive teaching stance that an instructor assumes in the classroom. He or she sacrifices other modes of teaching to an over-reliance on the textbook and neglects (intentionally or not) to suggest that its factual validity may fall short of the absolute truth. This teaching style can preclude student discussion and questioning of what they encounter in the textbook. Thornton (1991) perceived the average American history teacher as unconcerned about textbook veracity. Students are neither schooled to question what appears to

be truth, nor are they compelled by a society bent upon maintaining the status quo to do otherwise. To question what has transpired in American history may very well earn one the label of being unpatriotic. History sans discovery of rich, diverse accounts becomes lackluster and one-dimensional.

Teacher and Student Inquiry of Textbook Primary Sources

Previous strategies of teaching history have not required teachers or students to assess the accuracy of textbook primary sources. Teachers who do not lead their classrooms in historical thinking do a disservice to their students, whose intellectual growth can be stunted when they accept a source as truth without making room for other possibilities. These educators must "wrestle with issues of knowledge" and realize that if anything is to change, they must be the ones who enact it (Wineburg, 1997, p. 255).

The Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills for fifth grade social studies dictates that students at this point should use "problem-solving and decision-making skills, working independently and with others in a variety of settings" (retrieved on 2/25/2006 from http://www.tea.state.tx.us/rules/tac/chapter113/index.html). In elementary school classrooms, interaction ought to be normative. Historical thinking, encapsulating all of the above, meets these TEKS requirements. Cooper (2003) states, "Inquiry skills, open discussions, and content do more than present predigested conclusions from textbooks; they provide our youth with the means of mindsets to draw their own conclusions" (p. 71). New views and thoughts abound in a classroom dialogue about particular historical events. Exposed to these new views and thoughts a student is no longer limited only to his or her own perceptions of the world. Learning has been shaped by this dynamic involvement with primary sources.

Beyond peer collaboration, fifth-graders should be equipped to critically assess the primary sources that they encounter. According to Barton (1997), students are capable of handling sources as historical evidence as well as interpret the information and come to their own conclusions. These abilities allow students to construct their own images of past events based partially upon what they read in their textbooks and partially upon what they envision beyond the printed word.

Criticism of American History Textbooks

Textbooks have been subject to criticism for years, both for their content and for their prominence in students' educational lives. According to Crabtree (1987),

> in study after study…reviewers have found textbooks for elementary and junior high school social studies wanting. They have deplored their sameness and mediocrity and their violations of basic features of organization and writing that cognitive psychologists demonstrate are essential for learning. (p. 27)

Publishers are charged with offering books that are indistinguishable from one another; pedestrian at best, and conceptually and grammatically inferior they have yet to effect change within the industry. The negative critique of textbooks does not end here. Tyson and Woodward (1989) write, "The emptiness of these books and the lost opportunities to teach some history when children would relish it have led" critics "to call for changes in the existing curriculum" (p. 16). Since textbooks, the main source of information for the typical elementary classroom, have not been changing, a teacher might consider looking elsewhere for information. In addition to "improved texts, teachers of history need the freedom to select from a wide range of supplementary resources, including historical documents, biographies, history books other than

texts, and literature, art, and music produced in the historical periods under study" (Crabtree, 1989, p. 28). Ideally, replacing dependence upon textbooks with myriad academic alternatives would suffice, however teachers cannot break away from primary sources in American history textbooks because their ancillary choices are quite limited. This is why its important that all primary sources provided in the American history textbook must be adequately addressed, even those that are obviously biased or that contain unpleasant information. Considering the dearth of non-textbook options.

Art and Historical Thinking

American history textbooks contain visuals such as pictures, maps, illustrations, and art. According to Bliss (1990), "Art is often used effectively as primary source material" (p. 11). Text is not prerequisite for an historical account to be a lesson's centerpiece. Furthermore, the inclusion of art in textbooks "is thought-provoking and imaginative in its [*sic*] attempt to extend students' understanding of an important part of American history in that it begins where the text leaves off, conveying information that would be difficult to summarize verbally" (p. 11). Another form of art, portraits, commonly appear in history texts. Despite the fact that they "no longer have a dominant role in texts, they make up an important segment of the visual information" (p. 10). Just as any linguistic account of a story, art, even portraits, can be biased. In artistic accounts bias can be evident not only by what is included, but also by what is excluded. For example, where are the women in accounts of the American Revolution? Artwork would suggest that they played insignificant roles in the colonists' fight for independence. Likewise, where are slaves in these depictions? History reveals that they took up arms against the British right alongside the colonists.

Historical Content and the Effect of Historical Thinking Beyond the Classroom

When students engaged in historical thinking examine the past, “it is generally accepted" that they realize "that school history has focused too much on dead white males, excluding women, working class people, and people of various races and ethnic groups” (Clark, 1998, p. 47). Historical thinking demands attention to the classes, genders, and races traditionally absent from primary sources as students sift through items such as diary entries, letters, etc. of a history overlooked. This inspection of such personal effects lends students a unique type of understanding about the historical figure and about oneself. The historical figure comes alive through his or her own words. And the student, introspective, grasps his own commonalities to and differences from this person as he senses his ties to this occasion in a tangible new way. “Historical understanding can illuminate how contexts beyond the classroom shape children’s and adolescents' historical thinking” and “how factors related to young people’s racial, ethnic, class, or national identities influence their thinking about historical concepts or methods” (Epstein, 1997, p. 16). In short, historical thinking impacts each student in an individualized manner because it draws upon the whole makeup of the person in helping one come to one’s own understanding of historical events through the interpretation and analysis of primary sources.

Research Methodology

The purpose of this research is to determine the extent to which primary sources are present in fifth grade social studies textbooks. My research methodology is focused primarily upon the work of: VanSledright, Wineburg, Apple, and Banks, who have analyzed textbooks. The specific textbooks that are used in this study are three popular fifth grade social studies textbooks adopted by Texas school districts and approved by the Texas Education Agency, TEA.

These were reviewed for primary source content. Along with their popularity, these particular books were selected because a major, national, well-established publishing company distributes them. These books are comparable which allows for suitable assessment.

Qualitative Research

Data were analyzed qualitatively in this case study. This method of research "is designed to provide an in-depth description of a specific practice," such as that of primary sources sparking classroom historical thinking (Mertens, 2005, p. 229). "Holistic, …empirical, …interpretive," and "empathic" characteristics typically accompany qualitative research (Stake, 1995 pp. 47-8). This case study, analyzing primary sources, incorporates these elements which, in a later chapter will be elaborated.

Paradigm

The paradigm most fitting for the analysis of primary sources in textbooks is the interpretivist, or constructivist paradigm. Cornbleth (1991) writes, "The overriding interest of interpretive researchers is practical; their purpose is to understand what's happening, especially meaning in" the research project "under study" (p. 266). Specifically in this paradigm, "researchers seek to understand the particular" set of materials being studied and "to inform understanding of other, similar settings but not to formulate lawlike generalizations that might enable prediction and control" (p. 266). Embodying these notions, this case study essentially will evaluate the functional relationship between primary sources and historical thinking.

Method of Inquiry: Case Study

Case study methodology was employed for this study By definition, this type of research is an "empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context

when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident" (Yin, 2003, p. 13). To clarify, case study research will not exempt contextual conditions in the case that they may serve to uncover the reason something occurs. According to Yin, "The case study comprises an all-encompassing method – covering the logic of design, data collection techniques, and specific approaches to data analysis" (p. 14). Bromley (1986) writes that case studies, by definition, get as close to the subject of interest as possible of observations that are made in the environment in question and due to subjective elements such as desire and thought. Conversely, surveys employ data and records that basically cannot be argued. In addition, case studies tend to supply a rather wide range of possibilities, whereas surveys are narrowly focused. A narrow focus would not suffice for this research project, which garnered information about primary sources found within textbooks.

Narrowly focusing one's research question may set the conditions for "a case study" to "be selected for its very uniqueness, for what it can reveal about a phenomenon, knowledge we would not otherwise have access to" (Merriam, 1998, p. 33). For instance, a standard statistical approach could not appropriately evaluate a painting only intended to affect the subconscious. "Atypical cases…are essential for understanding the range or variety of human experience, which is essential for understanding and appreciating the human condition" (p. 190). In other words statistics cannot explore what possibly inspired someone to write or create a primary source.

This case study will prove to be a comprehensive research tool that seeks to expound circumstances and situations that quantitative research views as being unimportant in the big picture. According to Yin (2003), case studies are employed "when 'how' or 'why' questions

are being posed, when the investigator has little control over," for example, what primary sources are included in American history textbooks" (p. 1). Therefore, it can be said that case study research provides the researcher with an assortment of tools to examine primary sources that other methods of research fail to provide.

Data Analysis

During data analysis, the process itself brings about order and meaning to data that has been collected for the case study. (Marshall & Rossman, 1989). This particular study's focus on primary sources will not proceed in a "linear fashion," as do typical quantitative studies, but will analyze data qualitatively in "search for general statements about relationship among categories of data" that will subsequently build "grounded theory" (Erlandson, Harris, Skipper and Allen 1993, p. 111). While considering the data, "there is no particular moment when" the act of "data analysis" will begin, due to the researcher having taught from American history textbooks over a period of many years (p. 71). Here, the "analysis" will be a matter of "giving meaning to first impressions as well as final compilations" (p. 71). The researcher's "impressions" will subjectively be taken "apart" (p. 71). This process will involve three unique steps: first, the data will be checked for "accuracy" (Trochim, 2001, p. 257), next there will be a description of "what the data shows" (p. 257), and finally the researcher will arrive at the heart of the data analysis," where he will determine whether or not "the major research" question has been answered (p. 281).

Analysis of Data

Eight instruments of analysis, designed by the National Archives in Washington D.C. (2006), are utilized during the examination of the American Revolution primary sources

contained in the three American history textbooks. These instruments focus on written documents, photographs, cartoons, posters, maps, artifacts, and paintings.

Treatment of the gathered data will include a cross sectional chart indicating the number of times that primary sources relating to the American Revolution are included in each textbook and continuous charts detailing which primary sources relate to which historical events. Qualitative analysis of the data, i.e., primary sources, will be in the form of assessments made by answering a series of questions that vary, depending upon the specific type of primary source in question.

Positionality

The American Revolution was selected as a period of concentration for this study primarily because of the thirteen years experience spent as a social studies teacher. Over this period of time an awareness of the inaccuracies regarding the American Revolution that exist in textbooks became apparent. The position in this quandary is that of acting as an informant, attempting to prove that textbooks are not only employing primary sources that mislead students in regard to the truth concerning historical events, but also tend to form biases of judgment concerning the past in addition to wanting to act as an informant to the gross negligence that many textbooks have practiced. This study is of particular interest due to a descendency traceable to an American Revolution soldier, and an active membership in the Sons of the American Revolution for many years. During this time interpretations, or revisionist leanings, of our nation's fight for independence have come to light. This, in itself, has intrigued further pursuit of what actually occurred during a known ancestor's enlistment as a soldier in our nation's first armed forces. Therein lies a strong belief in students being exposed to factual

information regarding the past, and as persons perhaps descended from someone who aided in changing the course of American history. There is an obligation to separate primary sources that accurately represent our nation's history from primary sources that function only to fog the truth and propagate inaccuracies.

Summary

Uncovering how American history textbooks, present primary sources in an American Revolution unit of study is the aim of this dissertation. To answer this question I examined primary sources (such as written documents, photographs, cartoons, posters, maps, artifacts, and paintings) found in the American Revolution sections of three fifth grade social studies textbooks. Evaluating the primary sources currently included in textbooks is important because primary sources and the examination of them is considered to be a means for the studenst to transcend thinking of history as simply a compilation of facts. Students then realize that they can begin analyzing historical texts and may begin to change their perspectives of the past. During the execution of my study, I also looked to the work of published authors who have also assessed textbooks.

Chapter II

Literature Review

How do fifth grade social studies textbooks present primary sources in an American Revolution unit of study? In working with the research question, this literature review will begin by synthesizing the research that has been conducted on teaching historical thinking. In addition, the current climate of American history textbooks will be examined, seeking the impact that these textbooks have on historical thinking will be addressed.

Historical Thinking

In today's American history classrooms, students are typically expected to listen, read the school mandated curriculum, complete daily work, and take tests. In other words, when compared to today's classroom routines, little has changed in education over the past two generations. Students seldom have the opportunity to work together, employ primary sources in their studies, compose lengthy written works about their studies, or have the opportunity to engage in class discussions about their topics of study. Therefore, forming authentic interpretations of historical events is not commonplace, yet historical thinking relies on this very practice. The use of historical thinking among elementary school students has become a widely examined method for teaching American history. Historical thinking utilizes primary sources to understand the past. According to Sexias (1993), the instruction of historical thinking is pertinent to teaching history because of its focus on primary sources and how it enables students to learn how to analyze documents and other items that chronicle the past. Drake and Brown (2003) contend that "the use of primary sources…emphasizes the doing of history" (p. 465). This is the ultimate goal of historical thinking. Students becoming so enamored with the subject matter that

they literally step back in time. However, some scholars see difficulties in this ambitious quest. Afflerbach and VanSledright (2001), both being proponents of utilizing historical thinking in middle schools, contend that teachers should make "history…challenging and rewarding for students" while always being aware that asking students "to think historically must be considered in relation to students' prior knowledge and experience related to…history and to curricular goals" (p. 706). In other words, students' levels of historical thinking will vary depending on what former knowledge of history they have learned and what is expected of the school district in regard to a mandated curriculum in regard to history.

Gaining a better understanding of how students interpret American history through primary sources is one of the basic tenets of historical thinking. This framing grew out of hermeneutics, "the study of interpretive understanding or meaning" (Mertens, 2005, p. 12). This means that the student does not take information presented to him or her at face value but understands things according to how they interpret them. "Historians" use the concept of hermeneutics for "interpreting historical documents to try to understand what the author" was attempting "to communicate within the time period and culture in which…documents" were "written" (p. 12). Students can also draw upon hermeneutics in the same way by rigorously constructing their own interpretations of history.

Wineburg (2001), perhaps the academy's leading authority on historical thinking, envisions history as a cognitive discipline that is unique in nature. In his work *Historical Thinking and Other Unnatural Acts*, the author addresses the question, “Why study history at all?” (p. 5). He explains that:

history holds the potential, only partially realized, of humanizing us in ways

> offered by few other areas in the school curriculum…each generation must ask itself anew why studying the past is important, and remind itself why history can bring us together rather than…tear us apart. (p. 5)

By studying and analyzing the past, society can learn from mankind's mistakes therefore providing us with the opportunity to not repeat them. Unfortunately, schools frequently reduce history to a "rote memorization of dates, events, and people, or, in other words, the consumption of other people's facts" (VanSledright, 2002, p. 7). Today's typical classroom does not delve into history to the point at which students might have the opportunity to engage in "contextualized thinking." This type of thinking demands that students grapple with the contradictions between primary and secondary sources, which concoct questions that draw attention to questions that draw attention to motivation in the lives of historical figures (Wineburg, 2001, p. 90). Moreover, original documents, or primary sources, are available in the textbook itself. Barton (1997) points out that history teachers can help students work with primary sources much like historians do and give them the ability to clarify the actual status of those sources and the conclusions they can provide. In other words, Barton is suggesting that teachers are not employing resources that are readily available in the textbook.

A discussion of historical thinking would not be complete without examining how historical thinking can change the landscape of the history classroom, or how much credence can be assigned to personal accounts used in historical thinking; what role agency, empathy, and moral judgment play in historical thinking, and how student opinion factors into historical thinking.

Abilities Required for Historical Thinking

Historical thinking can be complex in nature. There are five basic tenets that students are expected to possess if they are to think historically. First, the student must try and imagine themselves in situations under study that are dissimilar from experiences they are ever apt to have. Next, the student must develop hypotheses concerning cause and effect while allowing for the chance that a particular cause my in all actuality be remotely distanced from the actual effect. This may occur in the time the event occurs, the category in which the event is placed, or a combination of both. Third on the list of student expectations for quality historical thinking is possessing the ability to form an assessment of how securely their hypotheses fit with the facts, yet remaining aware that reality can possess a lack of tidiness and that ever-present counterarguments must be taken in to account. In addition, students must be able to construe abstractions in a precise manner and reveal how those abstractions have changed over periods of time when interpretation is sought when they are compared to others. Lastly, students must be able to use fluent articulation when explaining their value system in such a manner that they are expressing an opinion and not imposing an attitude concerning the historical research. By doing so, the student will be able to draw conclusions that will have been logically derived from the evidence (Spoehr & Spoehr, 1994).

Historical Thinking and Credibility of Primary Sources

Teaching history is perhaps one of the most difficult areas of academic instruction, due to its reliance on supplemental disciplines as well as literary sources that may be questionable. Primary sources, or written histories, require careful examination as a result of the ever-present possibility that they: 1) may not be completely correct, 2) lack information, and 3) may contain

biases, due to individuals inaccurately recording information concerning a specific historical event. Despite widespread assumptions to the contrary, historical sources are not necessarily free of errors. Unfortunately, the male perspective is always given because few women in the early stages of our nation's history documented historical events. In addition, much of the material that has survived is a result of administrative reasons whose reasons for publication have been erased with time (Trubshaw, 2003).

Daddow (2004), in a miniature, "explores the state of contemporary disagreements about the nature and practice of history and argues that it is time to rethink the way we debate history" (p. 143). Taking into account that history changes with each retelling, the scholar claims that "one-fifth of historical works are influenced by the [writer's] prejudices" (p. 144). By examining primary sources with these possibilities for error in mind, students engaged in historical thinking will be more apt to search for new truths when examining primary sources from the textbook. When examining primary sources from the textbook with these possibilities for error in mind, students engaged in historical thinking will be more apt to search for new truths.

The Three Elements of Historical Thinking

The literature explores three distinct elements involved in historical thinking: student recognition of important historical events, historical epistemology, and the concepts of agency, empathy, and moral judgment. When considering the first element, one question that students needs to contemplate is as follows: Why is the past important and what is that importance based upon? Knowledge based upon fact and criteria based upon what is and is not important are necessary if students are expected to demonstrate this competency. However, the significance

one cultural group gives to a specific event may be entirely different than that of another cultural group. Therefore, in order for students to truly understand history as well as evaluate fact from fantasy requires a criteria that applies to all cultures. In other words, there is a foundation to the structure of historical thinking that must be learned.

The second element that is necessary for engaging in historical thinking concerns "historical epistemology, that is, students' ability to refine, revise, and add to their picture of history, either through new evidence or through reliance on historical authorities" (Seixas, 1993, p. 303). This is the difference between how history is typically taught and history that's taught through the use of historical thinking. According to VanSeldright (2002),

> A pivotal feature of it involves understanding how you know what you know and come to know it; that is, your epistemological stance. In attempting to construct an understanding of the past, for example, you impose that stance on new experiences making sense of historical events, sources, and authors' perspectives. (p. 76)

The information that students bring to the classroom and to their studies comes to be just as important as new experiences, even though the truth in that information may be challenged. However, despite the various difficulties that teachers and students face when confronted with letting go of a previously embraced status quo, the benefits of a paradigm shift to that of historical thinking are numerous. When students take an "epistemological stance" in regard to history, they are "attempting to construct an understanding of the past" based on "new experiences" that collide with information they have believed to be true prior to instruction (VanSeldright, 2002, p. 76). In essence, students begin to rewrite their knowledge of the past.

However, in rewriting their own historical knowledge, students' "rules of evidence may be more or less sophisticated and may or may not be explicitly articulated" (Seixas, 1993, p. 303). Whatever the case, students may have a tendency to rely on authority figures. In doing so, the choice may be more or less warranted. They may also have some criteria for internal and external consistency" (p. 303). Basically, students want to internally think the same thing that they are told externally. This mode of learning appears to be easier for students to deal with that than contradiction. Lastly, "Students may express different degrees of confidence in their own abilities to sort the true from the false" (p. 303). When considering all of the intricacies involved in historical epistemology, one readily understands why engaging in historical thinking is necessary for student success. This process encourages students to explore discrepancies in historical accounts and arms them with self-confidence, which, ultimately, breaks down a barrier that hinders student self-reliance in the classroom.

The last element involved in successful historical thinking focuses on a combination of concerns that include agency, empathy, and moral judgment. The first of the three, historical agency, according to suggests that people who lived in the past had choices to make and those choices inevitably led to consequences, whether good or bad Understanding historical agency is a prerequisite for students to understand adequately how people interacted in situations, both with society and culture, that they found themselves living with on a day-to-day basis. Students who do not possess this ability have difficulty envisioning, or understanding, what historical figures' lives were truly like and, subsequently, take their studies in history at face value. In terms of empathy, students must try to understand individuals in history who had to make decisions and face burdens and misfortunes that are alien to their present way of living. Empathy

helps bring to light the reasons behind someone's actions that they may not have given credence to before. Though they may not relate to what the person did, they understand now why they did it. Lastly, when constructing meaning from primary sources, students will be faced with "making moral judgments, either implicit or explicit. Judgments may involve individuals' actions, individuals' lives, collective actions, or institutions" (Seixas, 1993, p. 303). So, students first begin to see that the historical figure is his or her own person and able to make decisions. Now the character has come alive and means more than just a name in a story. Then, applying empathy, they open their mind to possibilities for the person in question that did not previously exist. It is not until the student deals with moral judgment that they begin to assess whether they would act the same way as the historical figure, under the same circumstances. Moral judgment turns the issue from a black and white *here's exactly what happens* to this what happens in response to this and given that he or she chooses to do this, I think it not completely right but understandable. In essence, the student now involves his/her life experiences in this decision-making process; thus, each student's interpretation is unique.

Student Interpretation

The practice of historical thinking through American history instruction allows elementary students the opportunity to make judgment calls concerning historical events. According to Bohan and Davis (1998) in the following assertion:

> intriguing history requires the imaginative ability to place oneself back in time, to understand human struggles, actions and consequences, to derive meaning from the stories of persons, place and events, and to make informed judgments on the basis of historical evidence, knowledge and effort. (p. 174)

Understanding history becomes far less complex when the student forms a mental representation of the historical event in question through studying vivid and varied personal accounts and then proceeds to build upon that mental representation through further study.

Historical thinking aids students in distinguishing the "past as a process," or an understanding of what actually occurs in historical texts from "the past as a narrative, or an interpretation of historical events that have been passed down from generation to generation (Seixas, 1993, p. 302). Through historical thinking, students can realize that the past is more than stories set down on paper. When treating historical sources as evidence, historical thinking aids elementary students in mastering their interpretative and conclusive skills when treating historical sources as evidence. It has been noted that 3rd grade students start to understand history chronologically. Although some students are confused by historical dating, picture sorting tasks ultimately show that children can successfully master this skill. Teachers have claimed that there is no substantial reason why studying history chronologically by time periods should impede in the instruction of historical thinking among elementary students. The significance of historical thinking, therefore, lies in its ability to provide students with a vehicle to explore their innermost thoughts on an historical plane. In doing so, these students make decisions regarding history that they formerly were never given the opportunity to do with other methods of learning history.

Historical thinking places the construction of knowledge directly in the hands of students, thus empowering them to govern their own thoughts and perspectives concerning past events. In effect, this type of learning helps students break free from the limits that textbooks impose on their understanding of historical events. Through historical thinking, students can

learn in a collaborative setting that encourages conflicting perspectives via the study of not just secondary, but also primary sources, rather than a regurgitation of memorized details.

American History Textbooks

The use of an American history textbook is a complex issue that must be considered from varying angles. First, an evaluation of textbooks is necessary. A discussion naturally follows regarding the amount of textbook usage actually occurring in the classroom. Next, thought should be given to the authors behind the work. Interpretation and misleading information should be given attention. Content and the origin myth should be addressed along with an examination of *The Canon Debate*. Transformative academic knowledge is a point of concern as well as the requirements for quality primary source material. Finally, secondary sources should be considered.

In recent years, “historians” have “warned against moralizing” and have rallied “for a dispassionate and culturally relative approach" to the interpretation of American history (Ortiz, 1994, p. 64). However, textbook publishers must answer to the needs of state adoption boards, who ultimately determine the success or failure of these texts. The material that textbooks contain can, therefore, hinge on political interests, rather than historical truths. According to Apple (1992), textbooks maintain a great deal of importance in the classroom. They lead students in constructing their own reality and guide them in the selection and organization of immense possibilities of knowledge (p. 5). Textbooks do have a tendency to control what students learn. For some, the textbook is the only source of reading that enters their daily lives. Sadly, the public at large has grown to believe that every textbook’s information is completely true and accurate. Teachers use textbooks when organizing their lessons and refer to them for the subject matter

they teach. All considered, many believe that these supposed guides for learning actually work against our youth because they provide only select information in regard to history that may not be based on fact (p. 6). What, then, are the motivating factors behind the adoption of textbooks that encumber student learning rather than motivate the leaders of tomorrow? Shouldn't textbooks be designed to enhance student thinking instead of serving as obstacles to academic growth?

More than just academic information in a textbook is intended to enrich student knowledge, "textbooks are at once the biggest moneymakers for academic authors and the staple of those courses that meet general-education requirements;" textbooks "provide" for "major enrollments, and thus justify" the "employment" of teachers" (Fink, 2005, p. B12). In reality, teachers and students alike cannot live without textbooks. "That is not to say that scholars and pedagogues have failed to produce alternatives" because "thoughtful teachers" have "learned to supplement the textbook's mind-numbing top-down authority with as much active learning as possible" (p. B12). Some teachers are taking an active role in doing so to make sure that their students, also, can be active participants in the educational system. However, "the favored cure for the common textbook - an anti-textbook of more open-ended readings and documents - only exacerbates the core problem of the unexamined authority of the textbook itself" (p. B12). The reference here is, of course, to the use of historical thinking in the classroom. Through historical thinking, students can still use a textbook. However, regardless of the source, the student of historical thinking, having learned of the multiple facets of historical events and actors will come to make decisions regarding truths, not the author of the text.

Textbook Evaluation

In past years, there have been attempts to conduct some evaluations of textbooks. "After the completion of a textbook appraisal project conducted by the Thomas B. Fordham Institute, President Chester E. Finn, Jr., an extreme conservative and critique of revisionist histories, expresses these thoughts on United States history textbooks in the statement that they 'range from serviceable to abysmal'"(District Administration, 2004, p. 63). Going one step further in his view of today's textbooks, Finn arrives at the conclusion that "none" are "distinguished or even very good" and that "the best are merely adequate" (p. 63). Although Finn paints a dismal picture of textbook quality, not all researchers/scholars/authors agree. According to Shestakov (2005), "Classroom texts are always vulnerable to critical disapproval and all manner of accusations of one-sidedness, political or ideological partiality" (p. 20). In the end, it would appear that "textbooks…are the messengers, not the message" (Tyson & Woodward, 1989, p. 15). One can surmise then that writers of history textbooks are at fault. "Publishers" themselves "do not usually originate textbook content but, rather, reflect the curriculum requirements of a dozen or more of the most populous states and cities" (p. 15). Therefore, the real problem is that these states demand a curriculum the publishers have to cover. If they don't, they won't sell their books.

On occasion, new material is added to American history textbooks. According to Tyson and Woodward (1989), "while the core content and instructional techniques in textbooks change little from decade to decade, market demands result in layer upon layer of new content and special features," such as primary sources and current events (p. 15). For instance, "new material-such as the election of President Bush in social studies books, elaborate scope-and-sequence charts required by major adoption states, or stunning pictures of recent events" have

collectively given "the impression that textbooks" are meeting "the high criteria of a demanding market" (p. 15). Basically, however, textbooks have no choice but to stay the same, content-wise, because the requirements for curriculum has not changed in states that lead in textbook adoptions. Basically textbook authors/publishers are stuck because they cannot change the material, so they adjust for it by trying to make glitzy changes to their publications in other ways.

Authors of American History Textbooks

American history textbook authors "are caught in the dilemma of responding to change or being intellectually dishonest and morally unethical in their attempt to present a well-balanced social, political, and economic history of the United States" (Mitsakos, 1981, p. 331). In other words, current textbook authors are attempting to meet the needs of a vast assemblage, whose members individually possess divergent political agendas. While the history text is to meet the needs of various factions, it is also "charged with developing concepts; helping students see relationships; and developing scholarly and social attitudes as well as data gathering and processing skills" (p. 331). Given this problematic situation of writing textbooks that must appeal to a wide audience, "textbook authors make authoritative knowledge claims and present meanings and conclusions as fixed, complete, and beyond criticism," thus resulting in "knowledge, concepts, and ideas that are abstract and problematic" (Romanowski, 2003, p. 33). These "authoritative knowledge claims that are beyond questioning" and "which make it nearly impossible for students to evaluate textbook claims" (p. 33). Because, unfortunately, "students assume that the textbook is true and that it corresponds with the way things are" (p. 33). What they typically do not realize is that they are reading collaborated historical interpretations based on ideological agendas and a deliberate effort to narrate American history.

Ulterior motives and biased information, however, are not the only reasons that historical information cannot necessarily be taken as truth. Levstik (1995) writes, "Historical interpretation is not confined to narrative moralizing. It is also a matter of weighing evidence and holding conclusions to be tentative pending further information" (p. 3). This harkens back to historical thinking, in that students interpretations of primary sources tend to change over time, given the amount of data they consume. Levstik continues with the statement:

> It would seem important in the development of any mature historical understanding that learners see history as a human enterprise made up of interpretations, subject to revision and expressed through a variety of genres. The structure of the narrative appears to encourage readers to recognize the human aspects of history, and, with some mediation, to develop a better sense of its interpretive and tentative aspects. In addition, narrativs may help students maintain a balance between the abstractions of history as an intellectual exercise and history as an ongoing participatory drama. But narrative is only one piece of the puzzle, for history is more than narrative. It is also learning to sift evidence before it has been shaped and interpreted. It is putting one's own time and place into a broader perspective and seeing oneself as making choices that are, cumulatively, historic. (p. 5)

Such is the case in historical thinking. When students come to realize that history is a vast assortment of interpretations, they experience an epiphany: there really is no one answer or narrative. And, as Levstik concludes, "relying primarily on" one "narrative," or multiple narratives, "deprives our students of full access to history and to the intellectual excitement that a

variety of genres…can provide" (p. 5). In other words, like and varying viewpoints should be investigated before students propel themselves into making decisions about their own specific interpretation of any historical event(s). A reason for this investigation could be problem(s) with a particular set of information.

Interpretations and Misleading Information

Textbook authors express "a viewpoint," or an "account for events in terms of an interpretive framework, and develop a thesis that relates the past to present conditions" (Carlson, 1985, p. 57). Reasons for this are the very fact that it's a viewpoint or their own interpretation of events thus making it a subjective perspective of history. Also, there is the interpretive variable which means every person can bring his or her interpretation to the event. According to Cornbleth (1991), "The overriding interest of interpretive researchers is practical; their purpose is to understand 'what's happening,' especially the operative social rules and meanings in the situation under " examination (p. 266). Also, researchers are expected to make comparisons. Cornbleth adds, "Interpretive researchers seek to understand the particular setting being studied and to inform understanding of other, similar settings but not to formulate lawlike generalizations that might enable prediction and control" (p. 266). With this said, isn't it ironic that the textbook is taken for granted as truth and not just one side to a story and that the true aim of historical research is distorted when the research comes to fruition? It is for this very reason that "history is more a debate or a discourse than a neutral presentation of what happened, and the publication of new histories is always the occasion for much discussion and dialogue" (Carlson, 1985, p. 57). In short, history requires indepth discussion of varying interpretations to reach some measure of concreteness.

Unfortunately, historical debate "is not the case with public school history textbooks, which claim to be objective and which strive to avoid controversy" (Carlson, 1985, p. 57). Isn't it interesting how all of the rest of the historical world expects challenges and contradictions to authors' work, but once it gets to historical texts in education, it's the complete opposite? Nevertheless, as students use textbooks, they "encounter a version of history that is filtered by the author's view of the world" (Romanowski, 1996, p. 170). Because of this tendency to avoid anything controversial, this one viewpoint of this one author of this one historical event may be the only account to which a student is exposed. "The writing process demands that textbook authors make judgments about what knowledge should be included or excluded and how particular episodes in history should be summarized" (p. 170). In doing so, the author may intend to be as thoroughly honest as possible, having to eliminate some information really could skew what happened in the big picture.

There are other factors besides what is included/excluded in the description of hisorical events that affect what gets put down on paper? As the writing process ensues, "textbook authors assign positive or negative interpretations to particular events, thereby asserting their set of values" (p. 170). This can be intentional or not intentional. To review, the reasons historical accounts contain interpretational and misinformation problems are: 1) the author works within a specific viewpoint and interpretive framework, 2) authors draw comparisons between the past and present, 3) debate and controversy are not embraced or encouraged with school textbooks, unlike within other historical genres, 4) authors select which material to include and how to summarize that material, 5) authors judge historical events according to their own values, 6) authors simplify and distort concepts ideologically, and, finally, 7) authors attack or ignore

opposing viewpoints. Basically, textbooks give the author's interpretation of historical events. According to Carlson (1985), "Today's history textbooks contain interpretations that are ideological in that they simplify and distort social reality in such a way that, without engaging in direct falsehood, they consistently support one side of an issue or dispute, discredit or ignore opposing viewpoints" (p. 57). And, "those impressions have great power, because their knowledge is what students retain from their encounters with history textbooks" (Romanowski, 2003, p. 29). In summary, "history textbooks can be biased and misleading" (Carlson, 1985, p. 57). One way this is accomplished is through the use of language because how anything is written can lead to it being accepted as credible or merely fiction.

Every author maintains a certain writing style as well as word choice that is uniquely their own. "Language is powerful because words create meaning in a reader's mind," and, as a result, "meanings become powerful in textbooks because they are presented as fixed, true, and objective, especially when the books have scholarly and governmental stamps of approval" (Romanowski, 2003, p. 35). And students, especially, who are not only unsure of their own ability to evaluate history, but who also tend to look to authority for direction, may be susceptible to believing what is essentially labeled expert information. Axtell (1987), states that "most of the words and terms we use in history and everyday speech are like mental depth charges," that when "heard or said" subsequently "sink into our consciousness and explode, sending off cognitive shrapnel in all directions" (p. 10)." On the surface they may look harmless enough, or resemble something equally benign," however, "as they descend and detonate, their resonate power is unleashed, showering our understanding with fragments of accumulated meaning and association" (p. 10). When someone reads something once, it is cemented

somewhere in their memory, and, if they encounter that same information, it is just further engrained in them as truth. Therefore, much gravity lies in how authors use words when they are explaining any historical event. A rough idea for a transition: Equally important is the choice of language used is the choosing of which reality to portray and who gets to choose what reality that will be.

Content and the Origin Myth

The content of American history textbooks is an ongoing source of contention among teachers and historians alike. "American textbooks have become compendiums of topics, none of which are treated in much depth," while the "aggregate volume of material required by many states and localities simply cannot be put into a standard-sized textbook unless the material is compressed to the point of incomprehensibility" (Tyson & Bernstein, 1988). In short, authors are having to cope with impossible demands while trying to please as many people as possible. Because of these demands, elementary American history textbooks can confuse students. This can be attributed to a lack of depth. There are some textbook critics who claim that "textbook histories have changed - some of them to such an extent that an adult would find them unrecognizable" (Mitsakos, 1981, p. 331). "In 1981, Frances Fitzgerald characterized textbooks as bland, boring, somewhat homogenized, and lacking in intellectual quality. She decried textbook publishers' response to pressure" (p. 331). By comparison, Shestakov (2005) writes, “The material in most school history textbooks remains intellectually undigested, and sometimes new approaches and assessments are fancifully intertwined with stereotypes of the recent past" (p. 21). But the issue is more complicated than just that.

In regard to how history textbooks have undergone modifications and alterations over the

years, Ortiz (1994) writes:

> everything has changed and nothing has changed. The new textbooks include materials on the previously marginalized - Indians, Africans, Mexicans, Puerto Ricans, Filipinos - who were forced into the United States project of wealth and empire building, as well as women, workers, socialists, pacifists, anti-imperialists - albeit mainly portraying them as victims, not actors. What has not changed, and why nothing has changed, is the essential origin myth. (p. 60)

What is referred to as the origin myth is supposedly truthful historical information that has been passed down from generation to generation both orally and through the printed word. False information comes to be believed over a period of time when this occurs. The origin myth basically began when "an elite created a new reality for themselves, for their own benefit" (p. 63). This new reality was not solely limited to what was once termed the *new world*. The new reality "has been true all over the world, especially during the past 500 years of colonialism and imperialism. What is different is not the historical behavior, but rather its denial or rationalization in order to continue the mythology of the origin of the United States" (p. 63). The way the United States behaved in forming is similar to how other societies form, stating that it is what it is. The truth is either denied or justified. The myth that focuses on American history is a:

> type of speech in which meaning is drained of its historical and contingent qualities and made to appear natural. This power of myth…lies in its recurrence making its historical contingency appear as eternal fact and also enabling it to appear apolitical, organic rather than historically and politically constituted, appearing to have meanings in and of itself. (p. 63)

Shestakov (2005) appears to be in support of such an origin myth when he writes that "history should be true and impartial. At the same time, though, the history textbook should unify society, rather than dividing it" (p. 19). Of course, whether or not Shestakov's stance can be a reality is debatable. However, his views offer up an additional motive to history because besides just recounting the past, history makes us feel unified, perhaps by making us feel proud of our heritage. This should not be an aim of history because history should be just about what happened, regardless of how it divides or unites us. However, regardless of the unification of society, "until U.S. historians are able to question and examine the origin myth they will not be able to allow themselves to ask very interesting new questions" (Ortiz, 1994, p. 63). Because historians are not asking these questions, we are missing some potentially very important information that could change the landscape of United States history. Mitsakos (1981) writes, "American history" [texts should] "have a balance of social, economic, and political history; make use of narrative and source materials; and provide a comprehensive view of the American experience" (p. 331). In addition, "A minimum requirement for textbooks…is that they represent knowledge in a discipline with reasonable accuracy" (Tyson & Woodward, 1989, p. 16). In addition to presenting American history truthfully, textbook publishers should strive to present all sides of the American experience, not only that of white males who have dominated society for centuries.

The Canon Debate

Having discussed the role of balance and the use of narratives in the attempt to provide a comprehensive view of the American experience, it is important to note that a "heated and divisive national debate is taking place about what knowledge related to ethnic and cultural

diversity should be taught in the school…curriculum" (Banks, 1993, p. 4). According to Ottenhoff (1994), "the key point of the debate concerns the American identity" (p. 54). The canon debate is made up of scholars from three opposing groups: "the Western traditionalists, the multiculturalists, and the Afrocentrists" (Banks, 1993, p. 4). Each of the groups sees the other as a threat to what they believe should and should not be included in American history textbooks.

The Western Traditionalists

Some would refer to the canon debate as a means of protecting the status quo, while others might see it as an attempt to bring revisionism, a revised view of history, into the classroom. "The Western traditionalists have initiated a national effort to defend the dominance of Western civilization in the school…curriculum" (Banks, 1993, p. 4). In other words, this particular group wishes to maintain the status quo that has existed for years with the help of textbooks that do not supply all the facets of primary sources related to historical events. "These scholars believe that Western history, literature, and culture are endangered in the school…because of the push by feminists, ethnic minority scholars, and other multiculturalists for curriculum reform and transformation" (p. 4). Change is not an option for the Western traditionalists. The American legacy of the past, for this group, must continue on for future generations in an effort to avoid the creation of a history that might undermine the current foundation of the American experience.

The Multiculturalists

The next group involved in the canon debate is the "multiculturalists," who "believe that the school…curriculum marginalizes the experiences of people of color and of women. They contend that the curriculum should be reformed so that it will more accurately reflect the

histories and cultures of ethnic groups and women" (Banks, 1993, p. 4). Unfortunately, American history textbooks have not feverishly addressed the role that ethnic groups have played in our nation's history. Likewise, coverage on the contributions of women to United States history has been limited.

The Afrocentrists

The last group included in the canon debate is the "Afrocentrists," who "maintain that African culture and history should be placed at the 'center' of the curriculum in order to motivate African Americans students to learn and to help all students to understand the important role that Africa has played in the development of Western civilization" (Banks, 1993, p. 4). This argument is a viable one when considering the role that African Americans played in Westward expansion. Without the slave trade, the clearing of land that turned this country into a profitable society would have been difficult. American history textbooks, especially when it comes to the American Revolution, rarely, if ever, note the contributions that these men and women made against their wills to the settlement of this land. Not only is the idea of including information about groups that have previously been marginalized controversial, but also the idea of changing previously established norms in historical textbooks..Reed, Lawson, and Gibbs (1997), maintain that "Afrocentricity is based on the premise that there is somewhere in the universe a collective African Consciousness" (p. 174). If this is truly the case, additional classroom knowledge of the African experience is not only beneficial in the education of young people but necessary as well.

Transformative Academic Knowledge

Similar to the canon debate is the notion of introducing "transformative academic knowledge" into the school curriculum (Banks, 1993, p. 9). "Transformative academic

knowledge consists of concepts, paradigms, themes, and explanations that challenge mainstream academic knowledge and that expand the historical and literary canon" (p. 9). One of the main proponents of transformative academic knowledge is Jack Mezirow. "Mezirow's theory of transformative learning proposes that deep transformations of perspectives occur only when learners are able to reflect critically on the underlying premise of their understandings" (Fleischer, 2006, p. 147). To further explain, practical application of transformative academic knowledge would be that the textbooks include contradictory information that it so desperately attempts to keep out of its pages. If this inclusion were to be done, textbooks would then be pulled into the larger atmosphere of discourse and debate in history.

One of the most significant tenets of mainstreaming student learning through the use of transformative academic knowledge is that this type of instruction is "neutral, objective," and "uninfluenced by human interests and values" (Banks, 1993, p. 9). An example of one of the core ideas and conceptions regarding transformative academic knowledge is Columbus and his supposed discovery of the Americas. In reality, "The Indians had been living in this land for about 40,000 years when the Europeans arrived" (p. 10). Further concerns that would be broached if transformative academic knowledge were to be implemented include "The European Discovery of America" and "The Westward Movement" (p. 10). It is suggested that these areas of history be

> reconceptualized and viewed from the perspectives of different cultural and ethnic groups. The Lakota Sioux's homeland was not the West to them; it was the center of the universe. It was not the West for the Alaskans; it was South. It was East for the Japanese and North for the people who lived in Mexico. (p. 10)

Unfortunately, many historians operate within a frame of what has happened in the United States and not the world in general. As a result, there are limited accounts of historical events. American history, for the most part, “has not been one of continuous progress” (p. 10). Although publishers would have you believe so by looking through current history textbooks. Textbooks tout the American Revolution as the patriotic foundation of our country, when, in reality, the rest of the world saw it as imperialism and colonization. Transformative academic knowledge challenges the comfortable truths we all learn from American history textbooks and how they can affect education, both positively and negatively. According to Cranton (2002):

> When a student transforms her assumptions, becoming open to alternatives and new ways of thinking, it is a magical moment in teaching. We cannot teach transformation. We often cannot even identify how or why it happens. But we can teach as though the possibility always exists that a student will hAave a transformative experience. (pp. 70-71)

Naturally, transformative academic thinking is beneficial when considering historical thinking. When a student is open to multiple perspectives, advances with primary sources can be limitless.

Requirements for Quality Primary Source Material

It should be apparent at this juncture that quality primary source material must be included in the text. According to Romanowski (2003), "Textbooks are powerful educational tools that provide students with an understanding of American history" (p. 29). The American history textbook basically outlines how teachers and students alike will gain a thorough understanding of the conclusion to which the textbook authors have resolutely come regarding historical information. This includes what primary sources have been included in the textbook

and what primary sources have been purposefully excluded. " Consequently, the version of U.S. history that students learn is largely shaped by the selected textbook" (p. 29). In other words, different students are learning different things depending on the selected text. Some "teachers use textbooks as the main (or the only) source to assign" work "for their students, with novice teachers relying more on textbooks than experienced teachers" (Mesa, 2004, p. 256). The significance of this lies basically in the fact that newer teachers are still unsure of what they're doing so they lean on the textbook for their information. They just haven't become accustomed yet to what else is out there. They simply don't realize the importance of a diversity of sources. What do you think is important to tell the reader about this information you've just introduced? "The more experienced teachers" tend "to use textbooks more for reference and background than for discussion or group work" (Tice, 1994, p. 41). If this is the case, again, it is of utmost importance that these references be high caliber primary sources. Lowen (1995) has suggested that teachers challenge textbook content by asking the following questions:

1. Why was a particular event written about?
2. Whose viewpoint is presented; whose omitted; and whose interests are served?
3. Is the account believable?
4. Is the account backed up by other sources?
5. How is one supposed to feel about the America that has been presented?

(Romanowski, 2003, p. 34)

In short, Romanowski believes that both teacher and student alike, knowing full well that biases as well as prejudices do exist, should question the quality of primary sources presented in textbooks. Having given attention to primary sources, let us now consider how secondary

sources impact history textbooks.

Secondary Sources that Accompany Primary Sources

Fink (2005) believes that prejudices and biases do exist in academic writings and shares his own classroom procedures when he writes:

> I tend to restrict my own lessons here to two points. First, the classroom and the textbook are connected to the larger society in important ways, of which the students should be at least generally aware. Second, those connections color which story lines and which historical agents - out of the infinite variety available - their textbook will be covering. Yes, African-Americans, Mexican-Americans, feminists, labor unionists, socialists, anti-abortionists, creationists, et al. - the motley crew of the American people - will likely all get some mention in the textbook, but, generally speaking, only when they rattle the leviathan's iron cage. (B13)

Here is where textbooks fail students. There should never be a need for some type of revolution to occur in order for historical information to be covered in the classroom. Textbook authors need to realize that all students come first, not just those who come from a privileged class system that demands conformity.

How Student Historical Thinking is Impacted by Textbook Use

Interactive learning in the classroom can be extremely helpful for student understanding of historical events. However, In lieu of actually discussing and questioning textbook information, a common method for teaching American history to elementary school students involves the instructor relying heavily on the textbook and leading students to believe that

everything in it is factual. In considering a stereotypical American history teacher, Thornton (1991) states that

> first, teachers usually equated the social studies curriculum with the content of the textbook. Moreover, they tended to treat the textbook as an authoritative source of knowledge. Second, teachers believed that factual information and basic reading and writing skills were the central knowledge goals for social studies. Third, teachers considered socialization to school, community, and national values more important goals than cognitive objectives. Fourth, teachers tended to conform to the norms of their communities and, reflecting those norms, did not appear concerned that they seldom dealt with controversial topics. (p. 238)

In summary, Thornton sees the stereotypical American history teacher as not being concerned with whether the textbook could possibly be wrong. Also, questioning textbook information appears to border on values that are unpatriotic, which appears to hinge on upsetting the status quo. Lastly, conforming to origin myths, as Thornton obviously feels is supported by society as a whole, only serves to lock students into a knowledge of history that is empty and meaningless. Despite the apparent disdain for posing challenges to what appears to be truth, doing just this is a way to infuse one's knowledge of history with richness and life.

Teacher and Student Inquiry of Textbook Primary Sources

Past methods of teaching history have not given the teacher or the student an opportunity to judge the accuracy of primary sources in history textbooks. However, teachers need to "wrestle with issues of knowledge" and come to see that they are the instruments that can bring about change and growth (Wineburg, 1997, p. 255). The acceptance of historical information

such as primary sources provided in the textbook without inquiry as to the extent of its truth, does not encourage intellectual growth among students.

According to the current Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills for fifth grade social studies, "The student uses problem-solving and decision-making skills, working independently and with others, in a variety of settings" (retrieved on 2/25/2006 from http://www.tea.state.tx.us/rules/tac/chapter113/index.html). Classroom interaction is expected to occur at this level in elementary school. Epstein (1997), in regard to sharing historical perspectives, writes, “Interactional" discussions help "children learn to think historically” (p. 16). When students share their perceptions of historical events with other students, they are expanding their own view because they find themselves considering other ways of looking at the topic under consideration. Cooper (2003) states, “Inquiry skills, open discussions, and content do more than present predigested conclusions from textbooks; they provide our youth with the means of mindsets to draw their own conclusions” (p. 71). Therefore, interaction with primary sources comes to be an important part of a student’s learning process.

Not only are fifth-graders expected to collaborate with their peers, they are expected to think critically about the different primary sources to which they are exposed. According to Barton (1997), they are prepared to work with historical sources as testimony as well as construe interpretations and render conclusions. In effect, students can become investigators of the past. In order to do so, elementary students should be taught reasoning skills in which they learn to draw their own conclusions concerning subject matter. According to Morris (2002),

> to stimulate students’ historical thinking...teachers need to provide students with exciting documents that report how other people have faced adversity in their lives. When the

> people in the primary sources cite their adventures or hardship, the students become interested. (p. 53)

Such examples are provided in textbooks. Here is where teachers actually become gatekeepers. According to Thornton (1991),

> as gatekeepers, teachers make the day-to-day decisions concerning both the subject matter and the experiences to which students have access and the nature of that subject matter and those experiences…gatekeeping encompasses the decisions teachers make about curriculum and instruction and the criteria they use to make those decisions. (p. 237)

Gatekeeping can entail which primary sources receive attention from the teacher and which of those are simply glossed over. Teachers must not pick and choose what primary sources are to be addressed but give attention to all of them collectively. Factors that should be taken into account include "historical significance, historical evidence and authority, and historical agency, empathy, and moral judgment" (Sexias, 1993, p. 302). These elements encourage students to ask questions about history, rather than simply to absorb dates and facts about people and events as they too often do now. As a consequence of interactive learning, and relying on primary sources in addition to secondary sources within the textbook, history becomes meaningful to students. Furthermore, complexities that involve history come to be taken into consideration. These complexities can affect a student's impression of history as well as their perception of life in general.

History Affecting Student Views of the Present and Future

Students need to understand that history is the study of continuity and change, and that

every problem of the present or the future can only be understood in terms of some version of the past. “These versions of the past, whether they are right or wrong, substantiated or invented…determine how we understand and behave toward events occurring in our world” (Crabtree, 1989, p. 26). When primary sources and historical events have been inadequately referenced or have not been covered in their entirety, students will tend to falsely assess problems and consequences of situations. Regardless of the academic level at which this occurs, and whether it be on a national, local, or personal level, student understanding of history and current events can be harmed if primary sources are not treated equally—even if it is obvious to the teacher and students that some accounts may be skewed. For instance, "The continuing tragedies of Northern Ireland, …the horror of the Holocaust, and the long denial of equal opportunities to black Americans are all effects of policies supported by large numbers of people influenced by particular versions of the past" (Crabtree, 1989, p. 26). Just as knowing history places students’ views of the present and future into perspective, knowing about specific time periods puts history in perspective.

Time Periods of Historic Importance

Like Crabtree, Fink (2005) supports the "practice of honoring decades (like the 1920s or the 1960s)" (p. B13). However, Crabtree raises the question as to why one moment or time period in history has garnered more academic attention than others when he asks,

> what justifies our conventional categorization by decades and our preoccupation with fins de siecle or new centuries? And why do some decades rate, but not others? To be sure, a good case can be made for a decade-long period of prosperity or outbreak of previously muted social conflict, and those are

exactly the arguments that I hope students themselves will take up. (p. B13)

In the end, it should not be the textbook that rates the importance of historical events or periods, but rather the student. By looking at the history textbook from a broad perspective, students quickly become aware that "a casebook of dramatic events" is readily available to them (Crabtree, 1989, p. 26). This casebook will ultimately aid students in building "essential understandings" of history that "they must acquire to cope with an increasingly interdependent world. By examining the causes, alternatives, and consequences inherent in the critical issues of history at different time periods, teachers can help students develop deeper insights into the complexity of human affairs" (p. 26). History, besides being a venue for absorbing information about the past, has a practical, real-life application. The study of such factors as causes, alternatives, and consequences will aid students in honing "their analytic and decision-making skills" and will also aid them in developing "political wisdom regarding issues" that they are sure to encounter as American citizens (p. 26). By having been submerged in primary sources connected to events surrounding the lives of historical figures from all time periods, students will also grow to understand the role they play as American citizens. A thorough study of historical events and historic time periods will inevitably give students the opportunity to view life through a multitude of different lenses, thus creating foundations which will serve them in their attempts to analyze history and make valid decisions concerning primary sources thus making them critical thinkers.

Criticism of American History Textbooks

American history textbooks, and the role they play in the lives of students, have been criticized for years. Reviewers of textbooks have found their content severely lacking. They are

repetitive in their sameness and basic organization, and written in a manner contrary to that which psychologists have deemed essential for learning. It is interesting to note that even though publishers are aware of such circumstances, change appears to be nowhere in sight. Tyson and Woodward write, "the emptiness of these books and the lost opportunities to teach some history when children would relish it have led" critics "to call for changes in the existing curriculum" (p. 16). In addition to "improved texts, teachers of history need the freedom to select from a wide range of supplementary resources, including historical documents, biographies, history books other than texts, and literature, art, and music produced in the historical periods under study" (Crabtree, 1989, p. 28). Unfortunately, the range of materials that teachers have at their disposal through the textbook, such as ancillaries, is limited. This is why it should be reiterated that all primary sources provided by the American history textbook must be adequately addressed, even those that are obviously biased or that contain unpleasant information.

Censorship

There are some in academia who believe students should be guarded from unpleasant truths. This can be seen as far back as 1925, when the American Legion expressed its thoughts on the ideal American history textbook. According to Loewen (1995),

> this organization proclaimed that these texts must inspire the children with patriotism…, must be careful to tell the truth optimistically…, must dwell on failure only for its value as a moral lesson, must speak chiefly of success…, must give each State and Section full space and value for the achievements of each. (p. 272)

As time has progressed, opinions appear to have changed. In an article titled "A Curriculum for

Democratic Citizenship," Engle and Ochoa (1986) write that textbooks should

> confront students with important questions and problems for which answers are not readily available; be highly selective; be organized around an important problem in society that is to be studied in depth; utilize…data from a variety of sources such as history, the social sciences, literature, journalism, and from students' first-hand experiences. (Social Education, November, p. 515 as cited in Loewen, 1995, p. 273)

However, despite all these recommendations for textbooks these criteria have not been realized in practice. Lowen (1995) states, "Textbooks hew closely to the American Legion line and disregard the recommendations of Engle and Ochoa" (p. 273). Reasons for this lie in the fact that "a few decades back, the secondary literature in history was quite biased. Until World War II history…was overtly anti-Semitic and antiblack" (p. 273). This brings to my mind the idea of propaganda because textbooks have been, at times, agenda-based. Most historians and history teachers were "males from privileged white families" who "wrote" and taught "with blinders on" (p. 273). Some could go as far as to say that they abused their power and position by only describing events from their vantage point because it seemed to be the only one worth mentioning. Loewen goes on to add, "Competent historians find nothing new here. The information is all there…but has not made its way into our textbooks" (p. 273). "As a consequence,…the United States has wound up with the largest gap of any country in the world between what historians know and what the rest of us are taught" (pp. 273-4). Teachers, while instructing students with the help of primary sources, should encourage students to delve deeper into what is actually presented on the textbook page. A thorough analysis of primary sources can

yield realities that were formerly unknown to students. In regard to these realities, Carlson (1985) writes that

> the young, particularly adolescents, can handle reality, so long as it is not presented as the 'natural' or inevitable order of things. They need and want to be challenged to form convictions based on their knowledge of history, to formulate and debate alternate futures, and to act to help realize valued futures through the political process. (p. 60)

Students don't need to be protected from the truth but just presented with it in an intelligent fashion. This would actually cultivate their responsible development more than shielding them from the truth. In short, even though adequate primary sources are limited in textbooks, students should be encouraged to take advantage of what is available to them through the text in order to form broader frames of historical knowledge. In doing so, students will be better prepared to think historically because they will not only be prepared to learn about history from primary accounts but they will be able to learn from alternative primary sources as well.

Visuals and Historical Thinking

Historical thinking is not limited to documents. Photographs, maps, and illustrations, (often referred to as visuals) have been an integral part of American history textbooks in past years. "Facsimiles, mostly of key historical documents, appear far less frequently than they did in the first half of the century"; however, these make up "an important category of textbook visuals" because they lend "to students' experience by presenting primary source documents discussed in the text" (Bliss, 1990, p. 12). Some facsimiles, or, exact copies of primary sources, appear to be more abundant in today's textbooks.

> Since the early 1990's, pictorial content of U.S. history textbooks has undergone significant changes. In the textbooks of the 1920s, visuals were used sparingly, and it was not uncommon to have six or seven pages of continuous text with no pictures. In contemporary texts, at least one-third of all the information presented is visual, more than double the amount contained in early twentieth-century textbooks. (p. 10)

Visuals can enhance the text as well as draw interest to otherwise nondescript events. When students are provided with photograph or a copy of a painting, they are more apt to connect with information being taught (Eisner, 1982). "Teachers need to be quite attentive to the learning opportunities that can occur when multiple ways of knowing a subject are well integrated" (Bliss, 1990, p. 13). "Visuals depicting recent history -- mostly photographs -- accurately convey a sense of contemporary culture and illuminate textual information" (p. 11). There, however, is not consensus on this aspect textbooks. In opposition to the strong use of visuals and what many critics see as positive inclusions in textbooks is Fox (2004), who writes that "textbooks present…obstacles for social studies teachers. Publishers design books to be simple by emphasizing the visual experience over the textual. Students, as a result, develop very limited skills" in regard to "dates, people, and events that they need to know" (p. 3). This debate will likely continue for years. However, visuals do help students when they are engaged in historical thinking. For example, actually seeing a present-day photograph an American Revolution battlefield can aid students when they attempt to visualize individuals and events from this specific time period. Closely related to, but not exactly the same as, visuals is the art that can be found in textbooks.

Art and Historical Thinking

Visuals for the American history textbook may include photographs, maps, and illustrations, and art. Barton (2001) uses the familiar adage "A picture can be worth a thousand words" and adds "maybe a lot more" (p. 278). Students and adults alike are commonly more attracted to subject material under examination if visuals accompany the text. Barton adds "For children in the early grades, visual materials - both photographs and other kinds of pictures - tap into a wider range of historical information than do activities based solely on oral or written language" (p. 279). Society today is more visually centered than ever before, therefore, art significantly aids in the learning process.

Other kinds of pictures found in American history textbooks may also include artistic renditions of historical events. According to Bliss (1990), "Art is often used effectively as primary source material" (p. 11). Art can in some cases replace the text as the main focus of the lesson. One substantial reason for this is because "art provides an important record of history and culture" (Christensen, 2006, p. 315). By studying art of a specific time period or artistic renditions of historical events, the student is propelled into the work because of the presence of visuals. The inclusion of art in the textbook "is thought-provoking and imaginative in it's [*sic*] attempt to extend students' understanding of an important part of American history in that it begins where the text leaves off, conveying information that would be difficult to summarize verbally" (p. 11). Portraits are also included in what history textbooks define as art. "Although portraits no longer have a dominant role in texts, they make up an important segment of the visual information" (p. 10). However, it must be noted that art, even portraits, may be biased, just like any other primary source. This can be seen not only in what is included in the painting, but in what is excluded as well. For example, where are the women who were involved in the

American Revolution? Surely, we cannot assume that they played insignificant roles in the colonists' fight for freedom. Also, where are slaves in paintings that depict the Revolution? History tells us that slaves did fight side by side among the colonists in their battles with the British.

The study of textbook art is more than just what has been included in the social studies textbook. It is also important for the student to focus on "what important information is hidden or omitted" just as the lack of slaves is omitted in the depiction of the American Revolution (Christensen, 2006, p. 315). In addition, "when using artwork, depth of content" should be considered" (p. 315). This can be accomplished In a number of ways. For instance, the student may consider "learning the geography of the place portrayed in the artwork" (p. 315). Again, this will guide the student in realizing what has been left out. Also, "envisioning issues" that "students may or may not have encountered or considered" helps students with content depth when studying a painting (p. 315). An example this may be the role of women during the American Revolution. The lack of the female gender in artwork from a time period certainly speaks volumes about their role in society. Using this process when studying art the student to "view life or issues from another's perspective" (p. 315). When all of these elements are combined in the study of art from a particular era, or art about a particular era, the student begins seeing historical events in a different light. White (2007) tells us:

> To historicize an individual artwork or, for that matter, any thing from the past is to show how it differs from anything coming before or after it but also how generally resembles other things peculiar to the age in which it originated. This process of contextualization and individuation is also a process of distancing and

> estrangement from the present. Thus, while as art the work perdures into the present, as historical artifact it remains rooted or grounded in the past. (p. 24)

Historical Content and the Effect of Historical Thinking Beyond the Classroom

When students examine the past while engaged in historical thinking, "it is generally accepted" that they come to the realization "that school history has focused too much on dead white males, excluding women, working class people, and people of various races and ethnic groups" (Clark, 1998, p. 47). Historical thinking attempts to rectify this unfortunate historical perspective by drawing attention to what has been left out of primary sources about all classes, genders, and races of people. This occurs through the inspection of diaries, letters, etc. When this type of inspection takes place, students can begin to draw upon similarities, as well as differences, in their own lives in regard to historical events and historical figures. "Historical understanding can illuminate how contexts beyond the classroom shape children's and adolescents' historical thinking" and "how factors related to young people's racial, ethnic, class, or national identities influence their thinking about historical concepts or methods" (Epstein, 1997, p. 16). In short, historical thinking impacts each student in an individualized manner because it draws upon the whole makeup of the person in helping one come to one's own understanding of historical events through the interpretation and analysis of primary sources.

Summary

This literature review encompasses three main goals: 1) compiling research that has been conducted on historical thinking, 2) highlighting controversies surrounding American history textbooks, and 3) outlining textbooks' impact on historical thinking. First, the research synthesis revisits what historical thinking means, discusses how it has been embraced as a teaching

method, and explains what circumstances prevent it from always coming to fruition. A few other topics warrant mention in this first section: the abilities that historical thinking requires of students, primary source credibility, the three elements of historical thinking, and student interpretation of historical events. Textbooks are essentially moneymakers for publishers and authors, and their adoption may hinge upon political, rather than educational, interests. This, in conjunction with their heavy usage in education and truthful, accurate imagery, justify an extensive analysis of textbooks in the second portion of this literature review. Specifically, the following issues are covered in this section: previous textbook evaluations; the impact that an author has on what students believe about history; the subjective nature of textbooks; historians' tendency to sustain a certain idea about our nation; three distinct groups of people with very different ideas about what should and should not be included about themselves and other historical actors in American history textbooks; the push to include information that challenges mainstream ideas; and what qualities make for good primary and secondary sources. Finally, the chapter closes by detailing how textbooks affect student historical thinking. Namely, 1) whether or not teachers allow classroom discussion of diverse historical accounts, 2) students realizing that their beliefs about the present and the future are shaped by their education about the past, 3) the agenda-driven censorship that occurs when authors attempt to protect children from unpleasant historical truths, 4) how visuals and art draw students into thinking about history in a way that text cannot, and 5) considering previously unvisited historical points of view so that students can relate to other groups of people in a new way.

Chapter III

Research Methodology

Building upon the work of historical thinkers and scholars who have analyzed textbooks, this study examines the notions of historical thinking based on the writings of VanSledright and Wineburg. In addition, textbook analysis is focused on the works of Apple and Banks. This study examined the frequency and variety of primary source inclusions in three fifth grade American history textbooks. These textbooks, adopted by Texas school districts and approved by the TEA, Texas Education Agency, are reviewed for their primary source content. The three reviewed textbooks are as follows:

1. United States History, by Robert P. Green, Thomas M. McGowan, and Linda Kerrigan Salvucci. Harcourt Horizons, Austin: TX, 2003.
2. The United States, by Candy Dawson Boyd, Geneva Gay, Rita Geiger, James B. Kracht, Valerie Ooka Pang, C. Frederick Risinger, and Sara Miranda Sanchez. Scott Foresman, Glenview: IL, 2003.
3. Our Nation, by James Banks, Richard Boehm, Kevin Colleary, Gloria Contreras, A. Lin Goodwin, Mary McFarland, and Walter Parker. Macmillan/McGraw-Hill, New York: New York, NY 2005.

These textbooks are popular among school districts and are published by major, well-established national textbook companies. These combined factors make the textbooks appropriate objects for comparison.

Research Question

Examining the American Revolution units of three widely adopted fifth grade American history textbooks servvd to provide answers to the research question. The research question that guided this study was: How textbooks present primary sources related to the American Revolution? Each textbook's unit on the American Revolution was examined in its entirety to provide researchers, teachers, and students alike the opportunity to be aware of the quality of these primary sources before they are utilized for individual purposes.

This particular study can be described as a "standard qualitative design," for it calls for interpretations that lead to "observations, exercising subjective judgment, analyzing and synthesizing, all the while realizing" his "own consciousness" (Stake 1995, p. 41). "In qualitative studies" such as this, the "research question typically" orients "to cases or phenomena, seeking patterns of unanticipated as well as expected relationships" (p. 41). Given such, analysis of data in this study is unbiased.

Qualitative Research

Qualitative research is the approach employed to analyze data in this case study. This method of research "is designed to provide an in-depth description of a specific practice," such as the data analysis of primary sources that will guide historical thinking (Mertens, 2005, p. 229). Characteristics commonly associated with qualitative research include elements that are holistic, empirical, interpretive, and empathic (Stake, 1995, pp. 47-8). These elements are given attention in this case study, in regard to the analysis of primary sources.

Holistic Characteristics

The holistic characteristics of qualitative research as they relate to the analysis

of primary sources in this work can be described as "contextuality" being "well developed" as well as this particular study being "case oriented" (Stake, 1995, p. 47). Also, a resistance to "reductionism and elementalism" are "present" throughout the study (p. 47). In addition, this work sought to be relatively "noncomparative," thus "seeking to understand" each primary source individually, "more than to understand how" each differs "from others" (Stake, 1995, p. 47). For example, I focused primarily on the specific content of each primary source in regard to quality and truthfulness.

Empirical Characteristics

The empirical characteristics of qualitative research present in this research project were objects oriented with focus limited to textbooks and ancillaries. In addition, a I maintained a "naturalistic and noninterventionistic" mode of textbook analysis is maintained while simultaneously sustaining "a relative preference for natural language description, sometimes disdaining grand constructs" (Stake, 1995, p. 47). In other words I did not gravitate away from primary sources by discussing theory, and did not confuse the reader with technical jargon that only someone deeply immersed in historical thinking could comprehend.

Interpretive Characteristics

The interpretive characteristics of this qualitative study include research relying "more on intuition, with many important criteria not specified," and a reliance on textbooks and ancillaries, thereby avoiding "problem-relevant events" in the classroom (Stake, 1995, p. 47). Although intended for classroom use, primary sources contained within textbooks under study are presented with the researcher's knowledge of American history.

Empathic Characteristics

The empathic characteristics realized through this study, although "planned," foster a "design" that is both "emergent" and "responsive"; "its issues are emic issues, progressively focused; and its reporting provides vicarious experience" (Stake, 1995, p. 47).

Additional Characteristics of Qualitative Research Related to this Study

During the research process of this case study, "observations and immediate interpretations" were "validated" through the "triangulation of data," the "deliberate effort to disconfirm… interpretations," the ever-present goal of assisting "readers to make their own interpretations," and the aspiration of assisting "readers in recognition of subjectivity" (Stake, 1995, p. 48). Also, this qualitative case study is "nonhortatory," thus "resisting the exploitation of the specialist's platform" (p. 48). In addition, this research not only had a competence in meof methodology and is "versed in" the targeted "discipline," but was also "versed in relevant disciplines" (p. 48). Lastly, the research honored "multiple realities (relativism) versus" a "single view" (p. 48). In short, many variables are considered while each primary source is analyzed.

Paradigm

The work done by educational researchers speaks volumes about the paradigmatic position. According to Kuhn (1962), a paradigm is representative of worldwide held views, as well as assumptions, that are real, academically sound, and valuable. Paradigms also indicate the researcher's "assertions about theory and conceptual frameworks, and claims for methods, procedures, and perspectives" (p. 59). Cornbleth (1991) eloquently describes paradigms by stating that

by paradigm, or worldview, I mean a framework of knowledge and belief through

> which one 'sees' and investigates the world or some part of it such as social studies education; a paradigm consists of one's working assumptions about the world and how it is to be perceived, studied, understood, and acted upon. This framework of knowledge and belief includes interrelated concepts and values, questions, procedures, and actions. A paradigm is, in a sense, a window to the world. It enables us to see what is 'out there.' (p. 265)

The paradigm this study emulates is interpretive in nature, a paradigm commonly referred to as constructivism. This paradigm denotes the way in which an individual perceives the world as well as their attempt to understand the world.

The Interpretive Paradigm

I employed the interpretivist/constructivist paradigm in the analysis of primary sources in the textbooks I chose. Cornbleth writes, "The overriding interest of interpretive researchers is practical; their purpose is to understand what's happening, especially meaning in" the research project "under study" (1991, p. 266). Within the interpretivist/constructivist paradigm, "researchers seek to understand the particular" set of materials being studied and "to inform understanding of other, similar settings but not to formulate lawlike generalizations that might enable prediction and control" (p. 266). This case study embodies these notions because it essentially interprets primary sources in regard to their functionality with historical thinking.

Factors Which Lend Themselves to the Interpretive Paradigm

While engaging in research, interpretivists may rely on ontology, epistemology, methodology, and the work of other interpretivist scholars. Crotty sees the ontology of "the interpretivist approach" as looking "for culturally derived and historically situated interpretations

of the social life-world" that are reflected in primary sources (2004, p. 67). Basically, interpreting the environment is based on understanding the reality of people in conjunction with one's own reality. Crotty writes (2004),

> All knowledge and therefore all meaningful reality as such is contingent upon human practices, being constructed in and out of interaction between human beings and their world, and developed and transmitted within an essentially social context. (p. 420)

Students must attempt to understand the way individuals looked at the world and each other during the time period under analysis. To compare life today with life two hundred years ago does nothing but complicate a thorough analysis of primary sources.

Epistemology

Knowledge is a social construction of reality. Individuals understand one another by the way they represent themselves symbolically through language. According to Crotty (2004), consciousness comes to be "directed towards the object" and that "the object is shaped by consciousness" (p. 42). Essentially, students should attempt to examine primary sources from the standpoint of an individual who lived at the time the document or object was created.

Methodologies

Interpretivist methodologies are made up of ethnography, case studies, life histories, historical research, observations, interviews, participant help in structuring inquiry and emergent designs. Hermeneutics "is the study of interpretive understanding or meaning" (p. 12). It is used by historians studying documents, or primary sources, in an attempt to decipher what authors were actually trying to say in their writing.

Interpretivist Scholars

Lincoln and Guba (2000) support the use of observations in research because they feel interaction with the material in question is most profitable in reaching conclusions. In one sense, the interpretivist researcher is a sort of handyman due to the individual's ability to use a vast range of methods and tools, even those most researchers would not consider, in order to be resourceful as well as imaginative in the case study at hand. Levi-Strauss (1966) sees the handyman as a sort of artist that takes parts that were once part of a whole and attempts to create a new meaning. In other words, primary sources become pieces of a large puzzle that the researcher pieced together in order to construct meaning.

History of the Interpretivist/Constructivist Paradigm

The interpretivist paradigm has grown from the philosophy of Edmund Husserl's views of phenomenology and Wilhelm Dilthey's, as well as other German philosophers', focus on interpretive understanding that is referred to as hermeneutics. Hermeneutics, basically, is the study of how individuals interprete understanding and meaning. This particular method of academic discernment has been used by many historians in their attempt to interpret historical documents from the standpoint of trying to understand what the author of the document was trying to communicate at the time the document was written. This type of study also takes into consideration cultures present at the time of the document's creation (Eichelberger, 1989). In order to truly understand an historical document, the reader should be privy to information detailing the time period it was written in order to gain a true understanding of its purpose.

The interpretivist/constructionist paradigm is not independent of the researcher. According to Mertens (2005), "The constructivist paradigm emphasizes that research is a product

of the values of researchers and cannot be independent of them" (p. 13). Schwandt (2000), suggests that one of the most guiding forces behind the constructivist paradigm is the belief that people construct knowledge socially and that researchers should therefore try understanding the complexities of the lives of people who experienced historical events and try to view them through their individual lens. If this is truly the case, constructivism basically implies that we do not discover or learn knowledge but rather construct it ourselves.

Historical Research

Unless an historian has personally witnessed a particular circumstance or event in history, he (or she) must fully rely on sources other than himself (or herself) in hopes of explaining history. Historians can derive information from a variety of sources to understand and subsequently explain historical events in writing. Examples of sources may include letters, memoirs, previously written histories, financial records, court records, and membership rosters from religious institutions. Unwritten sources of information might include architecture, burial grounds, as well as the remains of civilizations long since gone. The struggle to secure a relationship between evidence and fact is rarely a simple venture. Evidence may contain biases or information that is incorrect, fragmentary, or quite possibly be unable to decipher intelligently due to cultural changes as well as changes in linguistics. Therefore, historians must attempt to look at evidence from a critical standpoint.

. The foundation for the attempt to interpret history begins with a search for facts that leads to the selecting, arranging, and explaining of historical data; historians then record their analysis in written form. Historiography is the study of written records of individuals' lives, cultures, and societies by historians. Historiography is basically the study of the way in which history has been

written. One could say it is the history of historical writing. Hence, the study of history isn't exactly the study of the past but how that study has been written. William Roger Louis and Robin Winks (2001, p. 256 and forward) have a slightly different view on how other historians define historiography. Louis (2001) sees historiography as a skill that attempts to explain why historians wrote the way they did at selected times in history. The common thread that binds various interpretations of the meaning of historiography is the analysis of historians' written accounts of history.

Versions of historical writing are commonly questioned through the process of historiography, and they include contradictions. "Thus, one seeks not so much the historical fact as the exemplary story--the applicable anecdote, the usable history" (Morrow, 2004, p.108). According to the research, historians are not inclined to fill the gaps that exist in historical accounts, nor are they interested in correcting prejudices. "Judged in professional terms, they gain more rewards and kudos by narrating what they think happened in times gone by than by dwelling on the closures in their texts, the gaps in the documentary record and the ways in which they may have interpreted things differently" (Daddow, 2004, p. 144). At times it appears that current historians tend to defend history instead of making an effort to correct it. It seems that they "dismiss reflection on the construction of historical texts as a passing distraction from the real task of uncovering what actually happened in times gone by using the evidence left to us in the present" (p. 144). Noted historians, who try to identify and capture history, began with Plutarch, who "regarded history as a moral theater whose performances it was his task to recapitulate for the edification of himself and his readers. Considered as a 'mirror' for the soul…history provided a series of cautionary tales, of virtue compromised and virtue salvaged"

(Kimball, 2000, p. 10). Plutarch, in essence, saw history as a vehicle that could be utilized to aid the reader in understanding the present as well as to prepare for the future. Hegel, considered by some academics to be the "last Greek," saw history as a string of conflicts (Warnek, 2004, p. 160). "Hegel does not merely repeat history, does not merely undergo it; he also effects it, produces it. The very repetition itself transforms and elevates it to its end or fulfillment" (p. 162). Basically, Hegel proposes that for every old idea there arises a new idea that is destined to replace it. History thus becomes the result of dissension.

Frederick Jackson Turner, like Hegel, views history as a product of conflict with nature. Kyff (1993) writes,

> Turner postulated that as successive waves of Americans moved westward across the continent, the harsh conditions of the frontier profoundly influenced their values and behavior, creating a uniquely American character…There was little place on the frontier, noted Turner, for transported cultures and sophisticated government; settlers' lives were consumed in simple survival. Traditional economic practices also were useless here. And so each pocket of settlement quickly reverted to a more 'primitive' existence. (p. 52)

Turner believed that geography was the determining factor in the character of people. Subsequently, the frontier that was to become America shaped the minds of those early settlers because they had to be open to new ideas and situations as well as to the advantages and disadvantages that came with land ownership. Arnold Toynbee sees history from a perspective based on "challenge and response," much the same way as Turner sees the environment shaping character (Aridan, 2006, p. 91). "Civilizations" rise up "in response to some set of challenges of

extreme difficulty, when creative minorities" devise solutions that reorient "their entire society" (p. 91). Depending upon the reaction of a civilization, different outcomes can occur. "When a civilization responds to challenges, it grows. When it fails to respond to a challenge, it enters its period of decline," where, subsequently, the civilization dies "from suicide, not by murder" (p. 91). In effect, one could surmise that history is unpredictable. Whether it be an idea or even a certain practice, such factors come together at unplanned stages of human existence and work together in shaping a particular time period, thus lending themselves to future events.

There are historians who support political assumptions regarding the winners in the times of conflict and unrest that ultimately write history. When this occurs, history comes to be a myth perpetuated by the victor and is merely the tale of the winner. The loser comes to be demonized or excluded from the history books altogether. In short, those who gain political power subsequently write what comes to be known as historical truth.

Questions Historians Ask

Historians rely on large questions that tend to dominate their inquiry about primary sources. One of the most prominent questions that historians ask concerns the author of a document. Commonly, the author is envisioned as an historical figure with aspirations which molds the document in question. Other inquiries that must be addressed include the gender of the author, whether or not the author was a member of a minority ethnic group or majority ethnic group, the status of the author in terms of power in politics, monetary gains, or social standing, and what was the author's intent while composing the document?

In the event that the author of the document under analysis is not one specific individual, but rather a legislative body or government for example, should we presume that this group is

free of bias? Not necessarily. The researcher must grasp the process that led to the document's creation regardless of authorship. For instance, when considering the Declaration of Independence, one is aware that the document was a result of lengthy debates among those members of society in 1776 who sought to forge a new government and break free from the constraints imposed by Britain. An example can be seen in the inclusion, *All men are created equally*. Yes, the document did advocate freedom, however, the implication of the document at the time of its inception was that all men referred to all white men. This is only one example of content in historical documents about which the researcher must be aware when drawing conclusions about the intent of the primary source. Answering these questions can create a foundation for the analysis of the primary source. (retrieved on 3/4/07 from http://chnm.gmu.edu/worldhistorysources/unpacking/docsmain.html)

The primary sources that this study seeks to analyze are not only documents, but also photographs, cartoons, posters, maps, artifacts, paintings, and sculptures. The following list of questions were employed to analyze the primary sources within this study:

1. What kind of primary source is this?
2. Who created the object in question?
3. In what historical and organizational context was the primary source produced?
4. Who was the intended audience of the primary source?
5. How did the primary source affect the flow of events?

(retrieved on 3/4/07 from

http://chnm.gmu.edu/worldhistorysources/unpacking/docsmain.html)

Question number one is an inquiry into the nature of the primary source. What was the actual intent for its creation? In terms of formalities, was the primary source in question intended to declare peace, to impose sanctions, or merely to make the public aware of a common thought among governmental delegates? Likewise, does the primary source have a hidden agenda, such as instilling fear or anger among the populace, or does it seek to make an opponent mindful of the strength of a particular society? All of these underlying questions deserve attention when one looks past a surface interpretation of a primary source into what is beyond the written word. (retrieved on 3/4/07 from http://chnm.gmu.edu/worldhistorysources/unpacking/docsmain.html)

The second question focuses on the creator of the primary source. At times, the author or creator purposefully means to be anonymous. At other times, primary sources are produced by individuals or groups that have gone through negotiation steps to reflect the aims or feelings of a particular body, such as a committee or a government. Identifying the creator of the primary source will shed light on its meaning or intent. (retrieved on 3/4/07 from http://chnm.gmu.edu/worldhistorysources/unpacking/docsmain.html).

The third on the list of questions pertains to the historical and organizational context in which the primary source was produced. When looking at a primary source, one should consider the issues and events of the specific time period in which it was created. The researcher must look through the lens of the people who lived at that moment in time. For example, one cannot truly understand the significance of a colonial teapot which pre-dates the Revolution and has the phrase *No Stamp Act* painted on it without knowing about the taxation of tea from Europe (Harcourt, 2003, p. 282). Also, knowledge of the Boston Tea Party would further shed light on the implications of this simple phrase

.(retrieved on 3/4/07 from http://chnm.gmu.edu/worldhistorysources/unpacking/docsmain.html).

The next on the list of questions for historical research involves the intended audience for which/whom the primary source was created. Was this audience expected to be large or small? And, was the primary source expected to be viewed by a select group of people, or was it intended to be a public item? Also, it is important for the researcher to realize that a primary source may have been created for more than one audience. For instance, the main audience for the Declaration of Independence was, undoubtedly, Britain. However, this document also made clear to colonists who supported the Crown that the majority of people living in the Americas sought independence. This event is why many people loyal to England migrated northward. (retrieved on 3/4/07 from http://chnm.gmu.edu/worldhistorysources/unpacking/docsmain.html)

Loewen (1994) writes, "Since 1776 Canada has provided a refuge for Americans who disagreed with politics of the U.S. government, from Tories who fled harassment during and after the revolution" (p. 236). However, it is interesting to note that our textbook publishers have chosen to omit this portion of the American Revolution. It's interesting they haven't included the fact that there had to be an alternative for people who didn't want to deal with America's *law of the land*. Ironically, few textbooks mention the role that Canada played during this time in history, possibly because textbook publishers do not wish to broach the fact that the U.S. Government was ever faced with opposition from it's Canadian neighbors. The last question that historical researchers should ask in regard to primary sources is: how did the document or item affect the turn of events during the time in question? Did the primary source have any effect on policies of the day? Or did the primary source appeal to the public in such a way that the daily lives of individuals were subsequently affected? An example of this can be seen in a cartoon

designed by Benjamin Franklin titled "JOIN, or DIE" (Scott Foresman, 2003, p. 270). This cartoon depicts a snake that is cut into eight pieces. Each piece is labeled with the abbreviation for a colonial area such as South Carolina, North Carolina, Maryland, etc. Clearly, the publication of such a cartoon had an effect on the events leading up to the American Revolution as well as daily lives of individuals living in the designated areas. (retrieved on 3/4/07 from http://chnm.gmu.edu/worldhistorysources/unpacking/docsmain.html)

Method of Inquiry: Case Study

The method of inquiry chosen to govern this work is case study research. By definition, case study research is an "empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident" (Yin, 2003, p. 13). In short, case study research does not wish to gloss over contextual conditions because they might play an important role in discovering why something happens. According to Yin, "The case study comprises an all-encompassing method – covering the logic of design, data collection techniques, and specific approaches to data analysis" (p. 14). Case studies get as close to the subject of interest as possible of observations that are made in the environment in question and due to subjective elements such as desire and thought. Surveys, on the other hand, use data and records that basically can't be argued. In addition, case studies have a tendency to have a rather wide range of possibilities whereas surveys are the most part focused. Because of the plan to research primary sources in textbooks, a narrow focus would not obtain the information necessary to meet the needs of this research project.

The possibility of a narrow focus during research, or the need for subjectivity, are reasons why "a case study might be selected for its very uniqueness, for what it can reveal about a

phenomenon, knowledge we would not otherwise have access to" (Merriam, 1998, p. 33). For instance, a standard statistical approach could not appropriately evaluate a painting only intended to affect the subconscious. "Atypical cases…are essential for understanding the range or variety of human experience, which is essential for understanding and appreciating the human condition" (p. 190). In other words statistics cannot explore what possibly inspired someone to write or create a primary source.

In the end, the case study comes to be a comprehensive research tool that seeks to expound circumstances and situations that quantitative research views as being unimportant to the big picture. According to Yin (2003), case studies are employed "when 'how' or 'why' questions are being posed, when the investigator has little control over," for example, what primary sources are included in American history textbooks" (p. 1). Therefore, it can be said that case study research provides the researcher with an assortment of tools to examine primary sources that other methods of research fail to provide.

Data Analysis

During data analysis, the process itself brings about order and meaning to data that has been collected for the case study. (Marshall & Rossman, 1989). This particular study's focus on primary sources will not proceed in a "linear fashion," as do typical quantitative studies, but will analyze data qualitatively in "search for general statements about relationship among categories of data" that will subsequently build "grounded theory" (Erlandson, 1993, p. 111). While considering the data, "there is no particular moment when" the act of "data analysis" will begin, due to the researcher having taught from American history textbooks over a period of many years (p. 71). Here, the "analysis" will be a matter of "giving meaning to first impressions as

well as final compilations" (p. 71). The researcher's "impressions" will subjectively be taken "apart" (p. 71). This process will involve three unique steps. First, the data will be checked for "accuracy" (Trochim, 2001, p. 257). Next, there will be a description of "what the data shows" (p. 257). Finally, the researcher will arrive at the heart of the data analysis," where he will determine whether or not "the major research" question has been answered (p. 281).

Historical Time Period under Examination

The American Revolution is the focus of this study because of the inconsistencies and biased primary sources found over the years in textbooks concerning this time period. For example, many textbooks still use the now famous illustration of the British soldiers lined up firing at the colonists in Boston . This illustration was named *The Boston Massacre* by its engraver Paul Revere, a celebrated figure of the Revolution. This example is used because many are aware that the Boston Massacre was not an orderly event, but rather a riotous one. Included in the illustration is a British captain waving his sword as if signaling his troops to fire. Eyewitnesses to the event discredit this interpretation in their writings and agree that it was, in fact, a riot instigated by the colonists themselves. Obviously, with Paul Revere being a supporter of the Whigs, he purposefully depicted the event to make the British appear to be at fault. Might it be considered odd that even though many historians are aware of this depicted inaccuracy, the illustration continues to be used in American History textbooks? Three of the textbooks used in Tthis study contain the same engraving. The Scott Foresman textbook, The United States, records, "Angry colonists surrounded Hugh White and his fellow soldiers, the soldiers panicked. They fired into the crowd, killing five people" (p. 277). Not only is the illustration not representative of the actual event, but the inconsistency is also found in the text's description of

the event occurring in a totally different fashion. This is an example of the textbook inconsistencies and biased primary sources that are examined in this research.

Rigor of Qualitative Research

Validity is constantly defined and redefined in qualitative educational research. Validity, according to Trochim (2001), is defined as "the best approximation of the truth of a given proposition, inference, or conclusion" (p. 353). Erlandson, Harris, Skipper, and Allen (1993) use the term credibility to substantiate the term validity. Perhaps Erlandson, Harris, Skipper, and Allen believe that "the major concern in establishing credibility is interpreting the constructed realities that exist in the context of being studied" because "attention must be directed to gaining a comprehensive intensive interpretation" of the materials, or primary sources, under examination (p. 30). Lincoln and Guba (1985) propose sequential steps that will invariably establish credibility. These steps are as follows: First, there is a longstanding commitment with the case study where the researcher spends an adequate amount of time in the subject under study in order to avoid misrepresentations due to his or her involvement in the subject matter and make an effort to eliminate biase. Next, tenacious observations which seeks to interpret the data in multiple ways works in conjunction with the analysis which seeks to remain constant while simultaneously being tentative. Third on the list of strategies for establishing credibility is triangulation, which gives attention to varying questions, varying sources, and varying methods that are employed to focus on comparable data sets of data. The fourth strategy, which deals with adequacy of referred materials, addresses the fact that because data requires interpretation in terms of its context, it is necessary that the collection of material be viewed holistically in terms of the context.

Erlandson, Harris, Skipper, and Allen (1993) state that "Documents, photographs, and any other materials that provide a 'slice of life' from the context being studied will provide a supportive background that communicates to the reader a richer contextual understanding of the researcher's analyses and interpretations" (p. 31). Last on the list of strategies that establish credibility is "peer debriefing" (p. 31).

> Occasionally the researcher should step out of the context being studied to review perceptions, insights, and analyses with professionals outside the context who have enough general understanding of the nature of the study to debrief the researcher and provide feedback that will refine and, frequently, redirect the inquiry process. (p. 31)

It becomes important for the researcher to have input from other professionals within the area of study so that biases do not prevail. Constant immersion in the subject area without the feedback of those distanced from the direct study of the topic can negatively affect the researcher's analyses. At various stages of the case study, it becomes highly important for the researcher to look at his or her own work as though he or she were scrutinizing the work of another individual; this enables the researcher to identify flaws in the overall analysis and quality of the research

Research Quality

Lincoln and Guba (1985) established a criteria for judging research quality from an increased qualitative perspective organized into two distinct categories: "Traditional Criteria for Judging Quantitative Research" and "Alternative Criteria for Judging Qualitative Research" (Trochim, 2001, p. 162). Under Traditional Criteria there exists "Internal validity, External validity, Reliability, and Objectivity, whereas Alternative Criteria includes "Credibility,

Transferability, Dependability, and Confirmability" (p. 162). Credibility establishes that the "results of qualitative research are credible or believable from the perspective of the participant in the research" (p. 162). Internal validity, according to the quantitative method, focuses on "approximate truth about inferences regarding cause-effect or causal relationships" (p. 172). "Transferability," again, under the Alternative Criteria, "refers to the degree to which the results of qualitative research can be generalized or transferred to other contexts or settings" (p. 162). External validity, under Traditional Criteria, "refers to the approximate truth of conclusions that involve generalizations. External validity is the degree to which the conclusions" of a "study would hold for other persons in other places and at other times" (p. 42). Again, under the Alternative Criteria, Dependability is once again found. Under the Alternative Criteria, there is Dependability, which "emphasizes the need for the researcher to account for the ever-changing context within which research occurs" (p. 163). The partner to Dependability, under Traditional Criteria, is Reliability. Lincoln and Guba relate that, "The traditional view of reliability is based on the assumption of replicability, or repeatability. Essentially, it is concerned with whether or not you would obtain the same results if you could observe the same thing twice" (pp. 162-3). Lastly, under the heading of Alternative Criteria there is Confirmability: "Confirmability refers to the degree to which the results could be confirmed or corroborated by others" (p. 163). Objectivity, under Traditional Criteria, "is what multiple individuals are trying to achieve when they criticize each other's work" (p. 20).

Why This is a Good Study

This case study has merit because it reports quality primary sources in three

leading fifth grade American history textbooks and focuses on units detailing the American Revolution. In addition to recording quality primary sources, this study exposes primary sources containing information that is questionable or completely untrue. The availability of this information will naturally be useful to scholars and educators alike. In addition to documenting these primary sources, this study seeks to determine their usefulness to students engaging in historical thinking. A determination of the quality of American Revolution primary sources will lend further merit/credence to this case study.

Analysis of Data

Eight instruments of analysis, designed by the National Archives in Washington D.C., were utilized during the examination of the American Revolution primary sources contained in the three American history textbooks. These instruments focused on written documents, photographs, cartoons, posters, maps, artifacts, and paintings. The written document analysis instrument assessed the following pieces of information: the type of document; the unique physical characteristics of the document; the date or dates associated with the document; the author or creator of the document, including his or her position or title; the intended audience for the document; and a list of subjective questions concerning the document (see Appendix A). The photograph analysis instrument was rather introspective, for it was based primarily on observations, inferences, and personal questions (see Appendix B). The cartoon analysis instrument was made up of three distinct levels addressing 1) visuals (with or without words), 2) symbols, objects and phrases, and 3) descriptive questions (see Appendix C). The poster analysis instrument addressed colors and symbols is also aimed at subjective questions that are personal in nature such as questions geared toward determining the poster's audience and purpose (see

Appendix D). The map analysis instrument sought to resolve questions related to the type of map under examination, its unique physical features, its place of production, and subjective inquiries related to the map." (see Appendix E). The artifact analysis instrument determined the type of artifact and the material from which it was made; qualities associated with the artifact; uses of the artifact; and subjective questions regarding what the artifact tells us about the makers and/or users of the piece (see Appendix F). Lastly, the painting analysis instrument poses subjective questions regarding the creator's purpose, and why such elements as perspective, framing, distance, and subject were selected or left out.

In addition to analysis instruments that are specific to each primary source (see Appendices A - G), additional questions of which the student should be mindful of are as follows:

1. Who created the source and why? Was it created through a spur-of-the-moment act, a routine transaction, or a thoughtful, deliberate process?
2. Did the recorder have firsthand knowledge of the event? Or, did the recorder report what others saw and heard?
3. Was the recorder a neutral party, or did the creator have opinions or interests that might have influenced what was recorded?
4. Did the recorder produce the source for personal use, for one or more individuals, or for a large audience?
5. Was the source meant to be public or private?
6. Did the recorder wish to inform or persuade others? Did the recorder have reason(s) to be honest or dishonest?

7. Was the information recorded during the event, immediately after the event, or after some lapse of time? How large a lapse of time?

(retrieved on 3/4/07from http://rs5.loc.gov/learn/lessons/psources/stufile.html)

Lastly, the *bias rule* is followed when examining each primary source. This particular rule acknowledges that every primary source is biased to some degree: "Documents tell us only what the creator of the document thought happened, or perhaps only what the creator wants us to think happened." Therefore, as a precautionary guide, students should adhere to the following guidelines when reviewing the textbooks' primary sources:

1. Every primary source will be read and "viewed skeptically and critically."
2. No primary source will be taken at face value. "The creator's point of view must be considered."
3. Each primary source will "be cross-checked and compared with related sources."

(retrieved on 3/4/07 from http://memory.loc.gov/learn/lessons/psources/stufile.html)

Treatment of the gathered data is included in a cross sectional chart indicating the number of times primary sources from each category relating to the American Revolution are included in each textbook (see Appendix H). The goal for including this chart is to serve teachers in their attempt to determine whether or not any, or all, of the textbooks have adequately included primary sources in connection to specific events focusing on the American Revolution, a precondition for making historical thinking possible.

Stance as a Researcher

The researcher chose the American Revolution as a period of concentration for this study primarily because of twelve years of experience as a social studies teacher. Over this period of time, the researcher become aware of the inaccuracies regarding the American Revolution that exist in textbooks. The researcher's position in this quandary is that of acting as an informant. Through this dissertation, an attempt is made to prove that textbooks are not only employing primary sources that just mislead students in regard to the truth concerning historical events but also attempt to form biases in their judgment concerning the past.

In addition to wanting to act as an informant to the gross negligence that many textbooks have practiced, the researcher selected this particular study due to being a descendant of an American Revolution soldier. As such, he has been an active member in the Sons of the American Revolution for many years. During this time period, the researcher has been privy to many interpretations, or revisionist leanings, of the United States' fight for independence. This, in itself intrigued the researcher to further pursue what actually occurred during his ancestor's enlistment as a soldier in the United States' first armed forces. Therefore, as a teacher who strongly believes in students being exposed to factual information regarding the past, and as a person related to someone who aided in changing the course of American history, he sees an obligation to separate primary sources that accurately represent the United States' history from primary sources that function only to fog the truth and propagate such inaccuracies as origin myths.

Summary

This chapter outlines the researcher's methodology in terms of the research question, the paradigm, and the historical research characteristics. The study revolves around the research question: how often do varied primary sources appear in three fifth grade American history textbooks, and how do they impact historical thinking? This question is pursued through an in-depth, qualitative analysis, which considers the holistic, empirical, interpretive, and empathic characteristics of the data. Many other measures are taken to ensure that this study remains unbiased. "Paradigm" refers to conventional views and assumptions as well as the researchers' theories and perspectives. This researcher depends upon an interpretivist, or constructionist, paradigm to understand the relationship between primary sources and historical thinking. Within this paradigm, documents are treated as if they were crafted modernly but seen through the lens of an author's own time and society. Emphasis is made as to how one's gender, race, political power, and socioeconomic status might have 1) contextualized the document, 2) led to its creation, 3) and created inherent bias. The historian/researcher of this study supports shaping reality in creative and novel ways, as intended through this case study. Finally, with respect to historical research, what is labeled *truth* must be examined beyond face value because even historians have to rely upon other historians' work, since most did not encounter these events firsthand. Researchers must consider that the evidence upon which history is based may actually be tainted. In fact, an entire field, historiography, is built upon studying conflicting historical accounts. This is a comprehensive and methodical study, giving order and meaning to gathered data, checking for accuracy, describing the findings, and determining whether or not the research question has been satisfied. During this procedure, myriad steps are taken to ensure credibility, including spending adequate time in the research environment, considering the data in a

multitude of ways, employing triangulation, viewing data in their context, and garnering external reactions to the research. In addition to the above, data is judged using traditional and alternative criteria, and then further analyzed according to each method's four subcategories. Depending upon whether the primary sources under study are written documents, photographs, cartoons, posters, maps, artifacts, or paintings, different analysis instruments is implemented. Students, too, in their own analysis of primary sources, are presented with a list of questions to consider. Guidelines are provided to safeguard against bias in this work. The ultimate outcome of this study, pinpointing which types of primary sources are beneficial for historical thinking in the classroom, is inform and benefit today's educators.

Chapter IV

Presentation of Data

Historical thinking can be essential for the understanding and deciphering of primary sources in fifth grade social studies textbooks. In their textbooks, students are encouraged to analyze primary sources that can provide various and at times, conflicting interpretations of historical events. With this in mind there arises a question and need to investigate the content, context, and use of primary sources in U.S. history textbooks. According to Spoehr and Spoehr (1994), "Good historical thinking requires more than mastery of facts, it demands a detailed, densely textured analysis of the relations among the facts". (p. 71)

The purpose of this qualitative case study is to reveal how primary sources provided in state-adopted textbooks are portrayed and how often they are focused on a single perspective; teachers need to understand that multiple perspectives presented through historical sources may enhance a student's ability to think historically and critically. Their understanding may assist them in selecting additional primary sources for use to supplement the textbook.. Careful scrutiny of the American Revolution units contained within the three widely embraced fifth grade American history textbooks served to impart this research question.

The research for this study centers around the question: How do textbooks and textbook ancillaries provide elementary learners an opportunity to examine primary sources related to the American Revolution? This dissertation seeks to bring to light the primary sources found in currently-adopted fifth grade American history textbooks during the American Revolution unit of instruction.

In their textbooks students are encouraged to analyze primary sources that can provide various and at times conflicting interpretations of historical events. Three categories concerning the American Revolution in three fifth grade textbooks were chosen by the researcher in order to gain an understanding of the quantity and quality of primary sources that address the selected categories in each textbook: *colonial taxation, retaliation among the colonists, and the result of tyranny in the colonies*. Events that represent each of the three categories were also selected. Seven major events leading to the subsequent American Revolution were chosen by the researcher because they are the most common occurrences addressed in the American history textbooks during the American Revolution unit of study. Also, these events are stressed in the Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills. The three categories, *colonial taxation, retaliation among the colonists, and the result of tyranny in the colonies*, include various historical events, described in the next section.

Making up the category of *colonial taxation* are the tax laws that the thirteen colonies were subjected to. For instance, the tea tax enforced by the crown falls into this category. Next. the category titled *retaliation among the colonists* is comprised of the following events: the Boston Massacre, the Boston Tea Party, the ride of Paul Revere, Concord and Lexington, and Bunker Hill. The final category titled *the result of tyranny in the colonies* focuses solely on the Declaration of Independence. These events strengthened the colonists' conviction for their initial cause… wanting simply to be treated fairly, as though they still lived in Britain. The colonists, as subjects of the Crown, had carved out lives in the new world and they continued to remain loyal to their monarch. However, instead of feeling like patriotic subjects of the homeland the colonists felt themselves to be less well off than they had been in Britain. In essence, they

believed that they were being punished for their contributions to Britain rather than being appreciated for their achievements and sacrifices in colonial America.

When students practice historical thinking, they set forth to imagine the past and make decisions regarding history. Without such skills as "the imaginative ability to place" themselves "back in time" and make "informed judgments" concerning "historical evidence, knowledge and effort," students would struggle to do so (Bohan and Davis, 1998, p. 174). Historical thinking is unique and important because unlike other teaching methods, it goads students into the decision making and urges them to compare their own thoughts and experiences to those of historical figures from another time and place.

Each textbook that was examined had a dominance of quotes, or what is referred to as *other*. The term other has been chosen because the National Archives does not recognize quotes as being primary sources. Various scholars have conflicting opinions in regard to this ongoing debate. For instance, some scholars agree that citing quotes as primary sources is acceptable given that there is a disclaimer within the text stating that the source could be controversial.

On the opposite side of this discussion are scholars who feel that the author(s) of the textbook in question have analyzed secondary sources (quotes) and have processed and integrated these quotes into their own argument or narrative, supporting whatever stance they may have in regard to an historical event. Given this scenario, these quotes are merely secondary sources and become the textbook authors' personal interpretation of history, not the factual account the students are entitled to.

Citing an example from history that could make one reconsider whether or not quotes are legitimate primary sources can be seen in what the Secretary of War; Edwin Stanton, supposedly

said upon the death of Abraham Lincoln. As it is commonly known, Lincoln suffered a fatal gunshot wound at Ford's Theater on the night of April 14, 1865 while attending a theatrical comedy. He was sitting in a balcony box seat next to his wife Mary Todd Lincoln. The assassin, John Wilkes Booth, entered the balcony and shot Lincoln in the right rear side of his head, the bullet lodging behind his left eye. The unconscious president was taken to the Petersen Boarding House across the street, where at 7:22 A.M. the next morning Lincoln succumbed to his injury, the moment Edwin Stanton supposedly said, *Now he belongs to the ages.* However, according to James Tanner, a boarder who knew shorthand and had been pressed into service that fateful night by Stanton to record the events that followed, those were not the words uttered by Stanton. According to Tanner, at the moment Lincoln died, Stanton uttered these words, *He belongs to the angels now.* In the days that followed the president's death Stanton may have changed his words. The argument here is that if a quote of such historical magnitude could be changed, even though witnesses don't agree with that change, couldn't any quote be questioned? We know of other quotes that have been passed down via the origin myth that were complete fabrications. For instance, George Washington telling his father that he couldn't tell a lie and that he did in fact chop down the cherry tree. This is a myth fabricated by Mason Weems in his biography of Washington, yet has become widely accepted as truth.

This researcher made a conscious decision to include quotes as one of several types of primary sources analyzed, as the reader will find. The following analysis of data seeks to bring to light the various types of primary sources found in currently-adopted 5th grade American history textbooks during the American Revolution unit of instruction.

Tax Laws

George Grenville, prime minister of Great Britain in 1765, was faced with huge debts his country had accrued due to the French and Indian War, and maintaining thousands of British troops in North America for the sole protection of the colonists and British interests; his solution would set the wheels in motion for the American Revolution. Greenville proposed ridding Great Britain of its debts by taxing the colonists. George III, King of Great Britain at that time, approved of Greenville's plan as did Parliament. In order to reach this goal Parliament passed the Stamp Act in 1765. This particular tax law levied taxes on all of the colonists' printed materials,. other taxes soon followed. Many of the colonists were angered by these taxes; popular thought of the time held that since they were not allowed to vote for Parliament, Parliament had no right to levy taxes upon them.

Primary Sources in United States History published by Harcourt Horizons

The Harcourt Horizons 5th grade social studies text contains quotes pertaining to the colonists' negative feelings regarding the new English tax laws. In regard to the Sugar Act, James Otis of Massachusetts is noted as referring to this new tax law as being "unjust" (2003, pg. 181). Perhaps one of the most popular quotes to come out of this period of American history found in this textbook, also by James Otis, is "No taxation without representation" (pg. 282). In addition to these complaints concerning the British government there were members of the House of Burgesses who continued to lend their support to the Crown. During a speech being given by Patrick Henry, some of these individuals shouted "Treason" (pg. 282). Patrick Henry replied, "If this is treason, make the most of it" (pg. 282). This particular incident led to the House of Burgesses voting against the payment of Parliament's new taxes.

The Harcourt Horizons textbook also contains two quotes expressing two very different points of view in regard to colonists' new tax laws. One is by Thomas Whatley, a member of the British parliament, while the other is by Samuel Adams, a member of the Massachusetts legislature. Whatley is quoted as having said:

> "We are not yet recovered from a War undertaken…for their (the colonists') protection…and no time was ever so seasonable for claiming their assistance (help). The distribution is too unequal, of benefits only to the colonies, and all of the burthens (burdens) upon the country" (Britain) (2003, pg. 281).

The opposing viewpoint to the tax law controversy presented in this textbook is by Samuel Adams. This particular colonist would come to be an American patriot as well as a signer of the Declaration of Independence. His quote is as follows:

> "We are told to be quiet when we see that very money which is torn from us by lawless force…to feed and pamper a set of infamous wretches (British soldiers and officials) who swarm like the locusts of Egypt" (pg. 281).

The inclusion of the two varying viewpoints by men who are both in politics yet on opposite sides of the issue are primary sources that would be extremely helpful when participating in historical thinking.

Images identified as primary sources in *United States History* published by Harcourt Horizons that relate to the tax laws imposed upon the colonists by Parliament begin with an engraved portrait of King George II by Sir Joshua Reynolds created in the nineteenth century (Figure 4.1). This illustration can also be found in the Scott Foresman publication. As previously noted, the pose of the individual is one of comfort and disdain. This leads the viewer to imagine

him as uncaring and removed from his subjects just as the colonists viewed him. Another image, which can be viewed as the result of King George II's supposed disdain for the colonists is a 1829 engraving of a New Hampshire stamp agent that has been hung in effigy during on the colonists' anti-Stamp Act demonstrations (Figure 4.2). In this image, the colonists are pelting the effigy with rocks. The creator's purpose was to show the high level of emotions produced due to the Stamp Act. The depiction signifies hatred of the stamp agents and England. The pose in this engraving represents a riot. Distance is important in this engraving because the viewer is able to imagine the vast number of colonists who opposed England's newly updated tax laws. The subject of attention is the effigy of a stamp agent. As seen in the numbers on the engraving which are explained to the left of the work, the number *one* brings attention to a coffin and the colonists' wishes to see the Stamp Act die. The number *two* marks the stamp collector effigy made of straw while the number three brings attention to a protestor preparing to throw a rock at the effigy. Included in the engraving are elements that signify a riot and how a riot can produce such high levels of emotion. Excluded from the engraving are British soldiers attempting to bring order to the chaos of the riot and the presence of women (pg. 282).

Artifacts related to the tax laws found in the Harcourt Horizon textbook include an image of George II on a British coin (Figure 4.3). This particular coin has a profile depiction of George II. Shown alongside this British coin is a tax stamp for Brown Sugars (Figure 4.4). Text on the stamp translates the brown sugar has just been imported and it is to be sold cheap and for cash only. The colonists possibly saw the irony in this statement when although the price was supposedly inexpensive, the tax on the item significantly increased the cost. Also included in the Harcourt Horizon textbook in the way of artifacts is a leather box that actually held tax stamps

(Figure 4.5); a half penny tax sheet (Figure 4.6), and a shilling three pence tax stamp (Figure 4.7). Both of these stamps have a crown in their design, symbols that did not create respect for the Crown among the colonists but resulted in further animosity toward their sovereign. One last artifact that deals with the colonists' opposition to the tax laws is a teapot that has the phrase *No Stamp Act* on it. The irony with this particular piece lies is one of the new taxes being the now infamous tea tax.

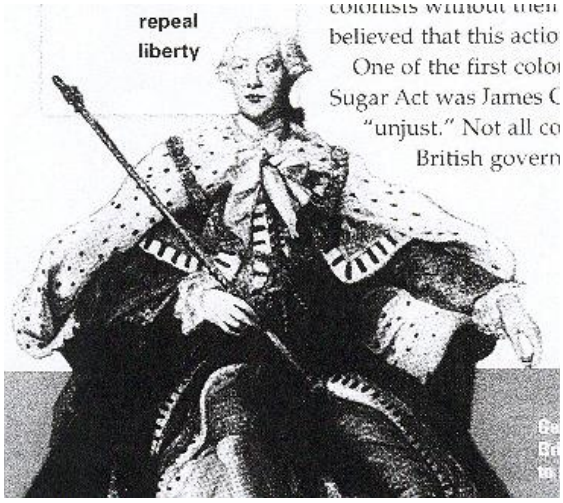


Figure 4.1. King George III by Sir Joshua Reynolds. Engraving 19th century United States History, Harcourt Horizons, 2005, p. 280.

Figure 4.2. A New Hampshire stamp agent hanged in effigy during an anti-Stamp Act demonstration in1765. Engraving, 1829, United States History, Harcourt Horizons, 2005, p. 280.

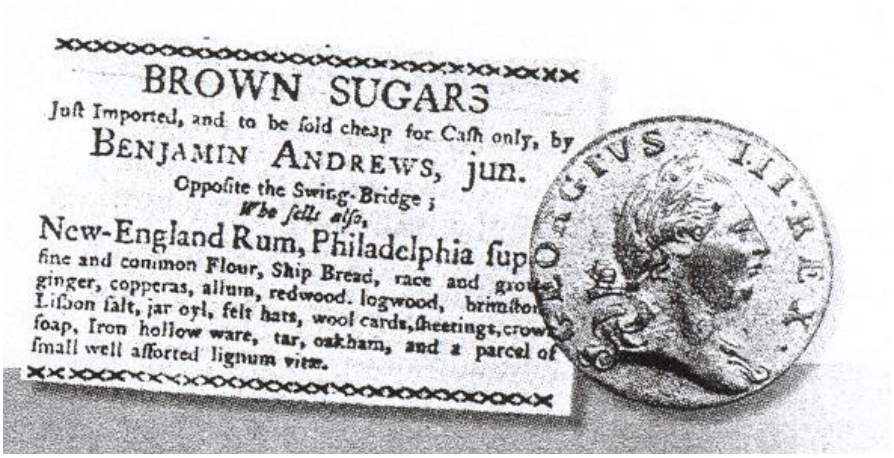
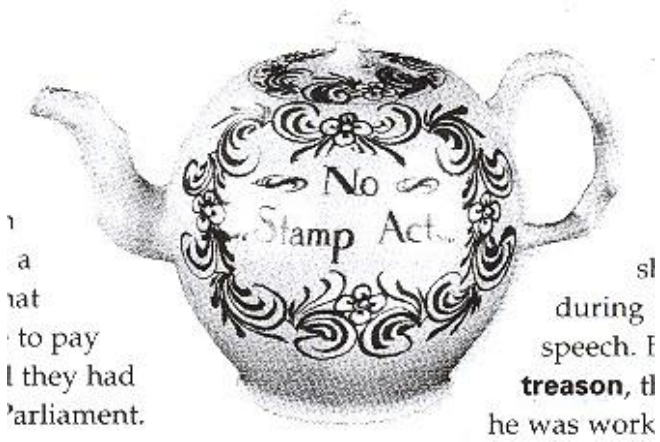


Figure 4.3. Silver British shilling coin (overleaf). United States History, Harcourt Horizons, 2005, p. 280.

Figure 4.4. BROWN SUGARS tax stamp. United States History,, Harcourt Horizons, 2005, p. 280.

Figure 4.5. Leather box that held tax stamps. United States History, Harcourt Horizons, 2005, p. 281.

Figures 4.6 and 4.7. Tax stamps (overleaf). United States History, Harcourt Horizons, 2005, p. 281.



Figures 4.8. "No Stamps Act" teapot. United States History, Harcourt Horizons, 2005, p. 282.

The 5th grade Harcourt Horizons textbook UNITED STATES HISTORY has afforded the student numerous primary sources in regard to "tax laws" initiated by the British government prior to the American Revolution. These include seven artifacts, two pieces of art, and six

quotes. Following is a breakdown of primary sources provided by the textbook The United States published by Scott Foresman in regard to "tax laws" of the period.

Primary Sources in THE UNITED STATES published by Scott Foresman

In the Scott Foresman 5th grade social studies text, there are several quotes concerning the colonists' opposition to the new tax laws. The phrase "No taxation without representation!" is noted to support the colonists negative reaction to the new tax (2003, pg. 269). Christopher Gadsden, a colonial leader from South Carolina, was one of the more affluent colonists who opposed the British taxes. At the Stamp Act Congress, held in New York City in October 1765, he is quoted in the Scott Foresman text as saying, "There ought to be no more New England men, no New Yorkers…but all us Americans" (pg. 270). An additional quote in the Scott Foresman text is from Mercy Otis Warren who decries, "We'll quit the useless vanities [expensive items] of life" (pg. 272). In the Scott Foresman text, there are no British quotes concerning the tax laws.

Images identified as primary sources regarding the tax laws that are included in The United States, published by Scott Foresman, begin with a painting of George Grenville (Figure 4.9) who was, as noted, the British prime minister in 1765 and is credited with the idea of taxing the colonists. The next image in conjunction with the Stamp Act is that of the House of Commons (Figure 4.10) with an inset portrait of George III (Figure 4.11). The painting of the House of Commons was created in 1710 and shows the members of the house in ceremonial wigs and sitting in a very organized fashion. This painting clearly denotes power and culture. The portrait of George III by Sir Joshua Reynolds gives the impression of relaxation on the part of the king. The next two images from the Scott Foresman text begin with an image designed by

Ben Franklin titled “JOIN, or DIE” (Figure 4.12). The image by Ben Franklin shows a snake cut into thirteen individual pieces. Each piece of the snake is labeled to represent one of the colonies. The audience for this work would have been the colonists with the obvious message that they will fail if they don’t join together as one unit opposing the crown and the new tax laws. The other image is that of tax collectors being harassed which comes from John Trunball’s “M’Fingal,” 1795 (Figure 4.13). In this image, protestors are in the process of tar and feathering two tax collectors. The intended audience for this image was most likely American citizens given its date of print. In conjunction with these images is a tax law artifact on the following page. This image is an actual tax stamp used during the time period (Figure 4.14). This stamp appears to be designed to pay homage to the British government and the Crown due to the symbols adorning it.

Mercy Otis Warren, as previously noted, spoke out against the Stamp Tax. Scott Foresman supplies an image of her as a rather wealthy individual (Figure 4.15). This portrait offers the viewer a glimpse into the life of an individual living in the colonies that was obviously privileged. Evidence suggesting this can be seen in the lace and silk dress she wears in the painting. On the same page as the portrait of Warren there are artifacts of the period that include a leather box that held tax stamps (Figure 4.16) as well as a teapot with the phrase *No Stamp Act* on it (Figure 4.17). The leather box denotes strength due to the material from which it is made and the presence of a lock. The teapot obviously criticizes the tax on tea and was intended for use by colonists who opposed the British tax laws.

Figure 4.9. George Brenville, English navy treasurer, 18th century. The United States, Scott Foresman, 2005, p. 268.

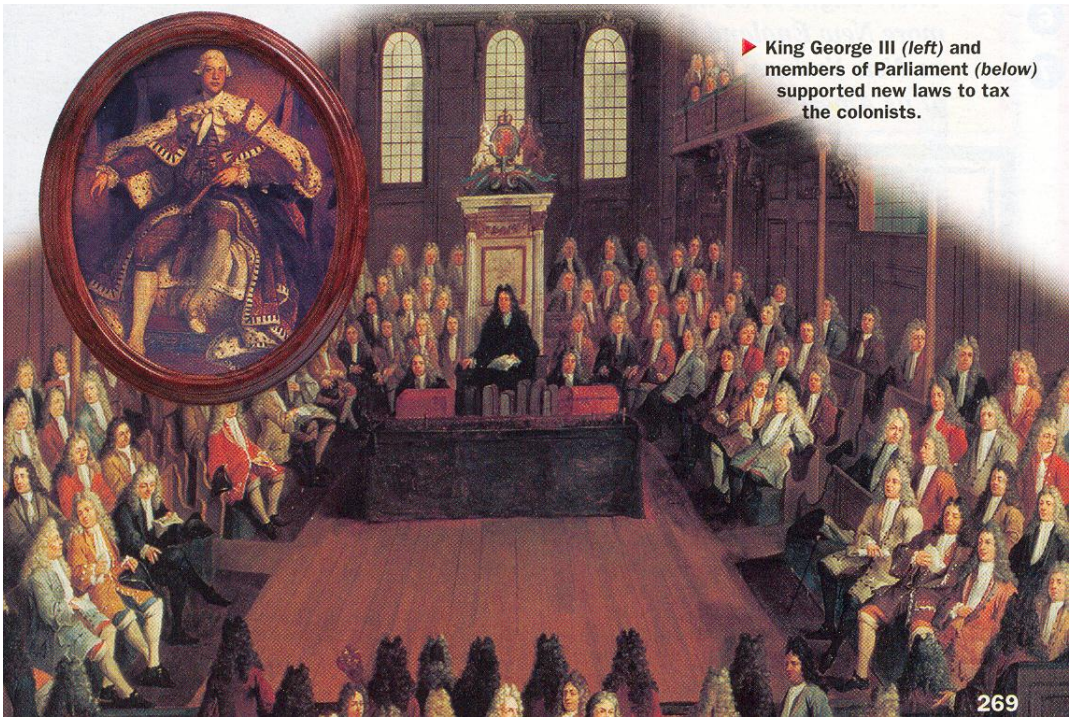


Figure 4.10. The House of Commons in session, c. 1710, The United States, Scott Foresman, 2005, p. 269.

Figure 4.11 (overleaf). George III by Sir Joshua Reynolds. The United States, Scott Foresman, 2005, p. 269.

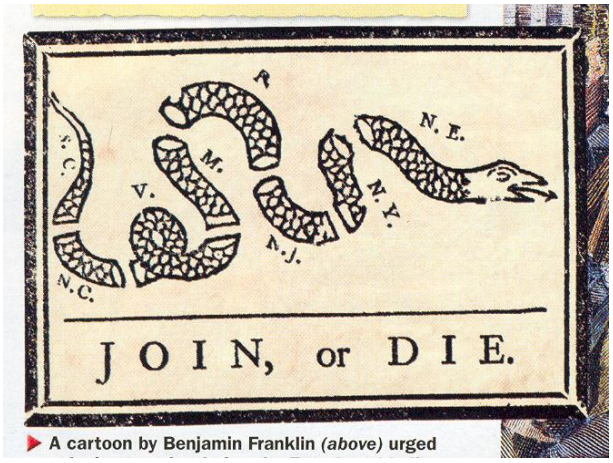


Figure 4.12. JOIN, or DIE engraving by Benjamin Franklin. The United States, Scott Foresman, 2005, p. 270.

Figure 4.13. Tax collectors being harassed by colonists. The United States, Scott Foresman, 2005, p. 270.

Figure 4.14. Shillings VI Pence Tax Stamp. The United States, Scott Foresman, 2005, p. 271.

Figure 4.15. Mercy Otis Warren. The United States, Scott Foresman, 2005, p. 272.

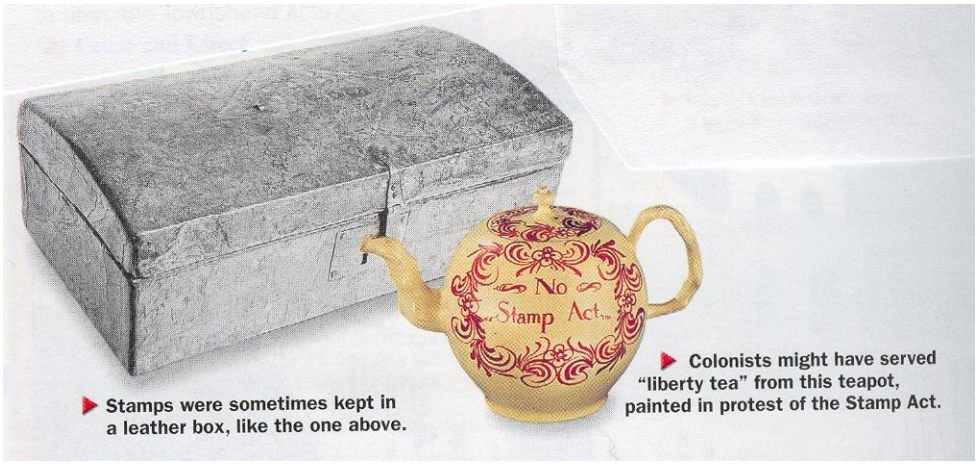


Figure 4.16. Leather box used for holding tax stamps. The United States, Scott Foresman, 2005, p. 272.

Figure 4.17. Teapot painted with the slogan No Stamp Act The United States, Scott Foresman, 2005, p. 272.

The 5th grade Scott Foresman textbook The United States supplies students numerous primary sources in regard to "tax laws" initiated by the British government prior to the American Revolution. These include three artifacts, six pieces of art, and three quotes. Following is a breakdown of primary sources provided by the textbook Our Nation publshed by Macmillan/McGraw-Hill in regard to "tax laws" of the period.

Primary Sources in Our Nation published by Macmillan/McGraw-Hill

In the MacMillan/McGraw-Hill 5th grade social studies textbook, there is only one quote concerning the colonists' opposition to the new tax laws. Patrick Henry supposedly said, "If this be treason…make the most of it (pg. 263).

Images in this textbook begin with an engraving by Daniel Chodowiecki, 1784, portraying an anti-stamp riot in Boston, 1765 (Figure 4.18). The purpose is to show the high level of emotions and hatred caused by the stamp act. The perspective denotes anger while the framing is one of disrespect for England. Distance works in this piece, for the participants in the riot are seen from a clear vantage point, thus showing the expressions on their faces. The subject is that of Bostonians protesting. Included in this work is smoke from muskets being shot in protest to the stamp act. Also, muskets can be seen raised high in the air with Bostonians in the windows looking down on the riotous crowd. Of particular note is the presence of a boy of black descent in the forefront of the engraving. Excluded from the work is the presence of British soldiers attempting to contain the riot. Also, women are not visible participants (pg. 260).

Next, there is an engraving of a Liberty Pole being raised by the Sons of Liberty in 1776 (Figure 4.19). The creator's purpose was to show the hope of the colonists for freedom from England as can be seen in the faces of the subjects. The pose is crucial here for the viewer can

envision the widespread feelings of retaliation brought on by the Stamp Act as seen in the number of people present. The perspective is one of happiness. The framing suggests respect that the colonists feel for one another in this moment of defiance. The subject is important because it shows colonists who are happy in their quest to break free from England. Included in this work are the presence of factors that give hope to the colonists' vision of freedom from England. There is a great deal of happiness present among those in attendance. Most importantly is the presence of small children which signifies hope for the future and growth. Also, in the bottom left foreground, are colonists who obviously oppose the degradation and ridicule of England (pg. 262).

The last image is that of a parade of colonists in New York (Figure 4.20). The purpose for the creation of this woodcut was to show colonists protesting the Stamp Act. The pose shows colonists parading away from the viewer in a show of excitement. The distance helps the viewer see expressions on the faces of the participants. The subject was to convey that the rioting was not limited to Boston, as many have thought. Included in the woodcut is a banner of skull and crossbones that indicates death to the Stamp Act. Men's hats raised triumphantly indicate happiness just as a sword in the air indicates the willingness to fight against the Stamp Act. Possibly, and most importantly is the presence in the foreground of an elderly man leaning down with his arm around a young man. This is representative of hope for the future because it appears that the elderly man is explaining the situation and how the future is in the hands of the young. Excluded from this woodcut is the presence of British soldiers attempting to contain the riot (pg. 263).

An artifact is included in this textbook which is of an embossed tax stamp (Figure 4.21). The tax stamp is made from paper. Printed on the stamp is the value of the stamp which is V Shillings. The artifact was used by British tax agents charging colonists taxes on items such as tea. It might have been used in colonial ports or in the city that ships carrying cargo were docked. The stamp was used when colonists bought taxable items provided by the British. The artifact tells us that technology of the time had reached a level that items could be printed or embossed in mass quantity with a high degree of professionalism. Items such as this tax stamp tell us that the life and times of the people who made it and used it were rapidly moving in a direction of technological growth that had not been realized in prior years (pg. 264).

Figure 4.18. Anti-stamp Act, Boston, 1765. Engraving by Daniel Chodowiecki, 1784. OUR NATION, MacMillan/McGraw-Hill, 2005, pg. 260.

Figure 4.19. Liberty Pole, 1776. Sons of Liberty raising a Liberty Pole in 1776. Engraving, 1875. OUR NATION, MacMillan/McGraw-Hill, 2005, pg. 262.

Figure 4.20. Parade of colonials protesting the Stamp Act in New York City. Woodcut. OUR NATION, MacMillan/McGraw-Hill, 2005, pg. 263.

Figure 4.21. Embossed tax stamp issued by the British government for use in the American colonies in 1765. OUR NATION, MacMillan/McGraw-Hill, 2005, pg. 264.

The 5th grade Macmillan/McGraw-Hill textbook Our Nation has afforded students primary sources in regard to "tax laws" initiated by the British government prior to the American Revolution that include one artifacts, three pieces of art, and three quotes.

Summary of primary sources from the three fifth grade social studies textbooks concerning “Tax Laws” initiated by the British Government that were a catalyst for the American Revolution begin with the textbook United States History published by Harcourt Horizons. Primary sources not found in the textbook include written documents, photos, and maps. However, there are seven artifacts, two pieces of artwork, and six quotes. In regard to The United States published by Scott Foresman concerning “Tax Laws” of the same time period, primary sources do not include written documents, photos, and maps. This textbook does share three artifacts, six pieces of artwork, and three quotes. Lastly, Our Nation published by Macmillan/McGraw-Hill focusing on colonists’ “Tax Laws” primary sources does not address

written documents, photos, or maps. However, this textbook does provide the student with one artifact from the period, three artwork pieces, and one quote.

The Boston Massacre

On the night of March 5, 1770, with new fallen snow on the streets of Boston, people were about walking enjoying the winter air. With tempers having risen among the Bostonians since British soldiers arrived in Boston in 1768 to squelch the tension caused by tax laws, it wasn't uncommon for the citizens to hurl insults at soldiers in the street. Hugh White, a British soldier, happened to be on duty that this particular evening. Edward Garrick, a Bostonian, began yelling insults at the soldier. Eventually White lost his temper and hit Garrick with the butt on his rifle. A crowd gathered while other soldiers came to the aid of White. The colonists eventually surrounded the soldiers and began hitting and throwing objects at them. In the midst of the confusion the soldiers defended themselves by firing into the crowd. Three colonists were killed included and two died later. Crispus Attucks, an escaped slave, was one of the colonists killed. He had led a group of sailors to the scene of the riot. This event has been referred to as the Boston Massacre even though it was not a massacre in the true sense of the word..

Primary Sources in United States History published by Harcourt Horizons

Quotes from the event referred to as the Boston Massacre in the Scott Foresman text "lobsters," "redcoats," and "bloody-backs" (United States History, Harcourt Horizons, 2005, p. 284). These names, as previously noted, referred to the bright red uniform jackets worn by the British soldiers. There are no quotes by anyone who witnessed the shootings or from the trial that followed the incident.

Images identified as primary sources regarding the Boston Massacre that are included in The United States, published by Harourt Horizons, begin with a painting of the Old State House (Figure 4.22). The painting is a representation of Boston in the 1770. There are two maps which overlap the painting. The first is map of the United States showing each state outlined (Figure 4.23) while the second is a map of Boston showing where the *massacre* occurred (Figure 4.24). The next image is a painting of Crispus Attucks (Figure 4.25) who was, as noted, killed during the Boston shooting. The portrait shown is that of a very dignified individual dressed as a gentleman. In relation to this portrait is an engraving of the Boston Massacre executed by Paul Revere (Figure 4.26). This image depicts British soldiers lined up regiment style with rifles pointed at the rioting colonists. Behind the soldiers is an officer with his sword raised as if signaling for the soldiers to fire.

Following this lesson in the textbook there is a skill exercise where students determine point of view. Represented in this exercise are two images. The first image is a colored engraving by Paul Revere (Figure 4.27). This image is another version a previous image (Figure 4.26). It depicts the British soldiers lined up regiment style with rifles pointed and firing at the rioting colonists. In the background is an officer with his sword raised as if signaling for the soldiers to fire. The next image depicts soldiers being surrounded by colonists who are pelting them with rocks, sticks and snowballs (Figure 4.28). This image is based on actual descriptions of event that were presented in the trial of the British soldiers who fired upon the colonists.

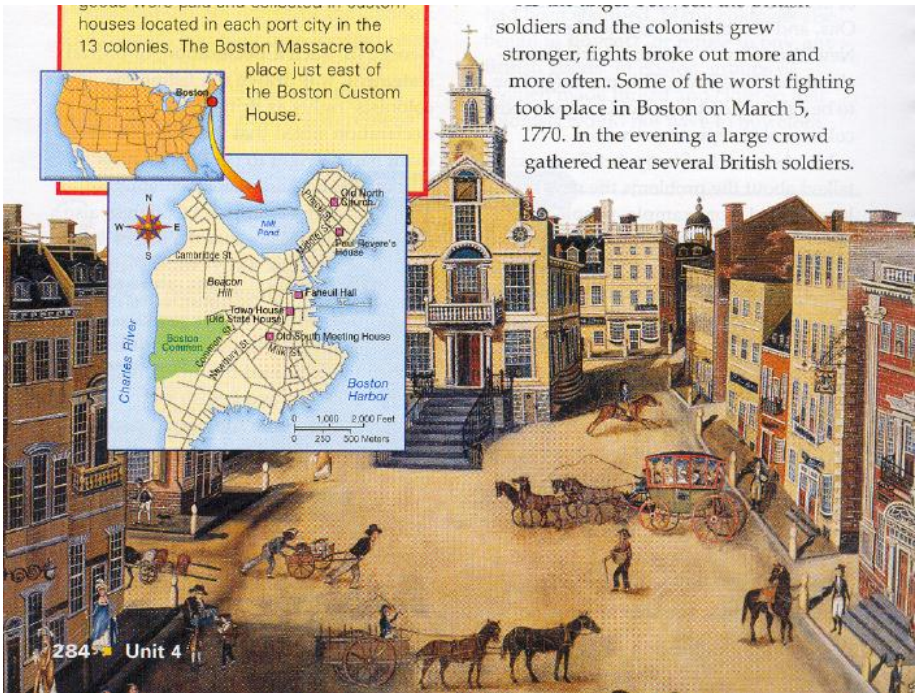


Figure 4.22. Boston Old State House painting, 1770. United Staes History, Harcourt Horizons, 2005, p. 284.

Figure 4.23. United States Map. United States History, Harcourt Horizons, 2005, p. 284.

Figure 4.24. Boston Map Showing the Location of the Boston Massacre. United States History, Harcourt Horizons, 2005, p. 284.

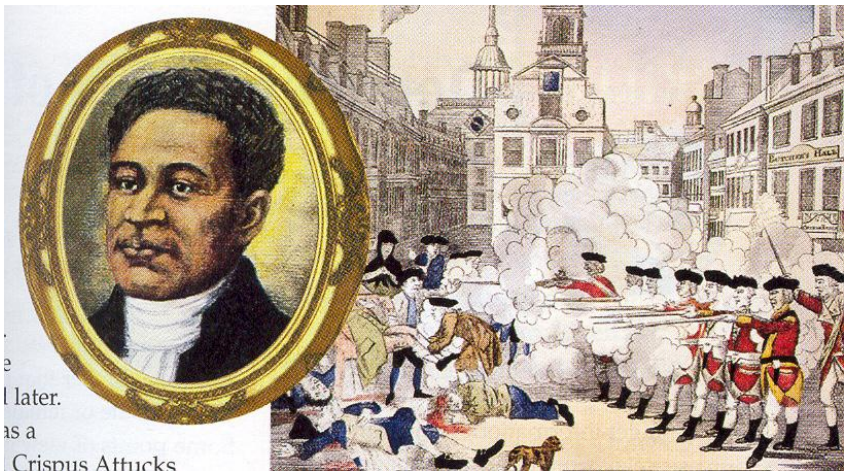


Figure 4.25. Crispus Attucks. Painting by unknown artist. United States History, Harcourt Horizons, 2005, p. 285.

Figure 4.26. The Boston Massacre by Paul Revere. Etching by Paul Revere. United States History, Harcourt Horizons, 2005, p. 285.

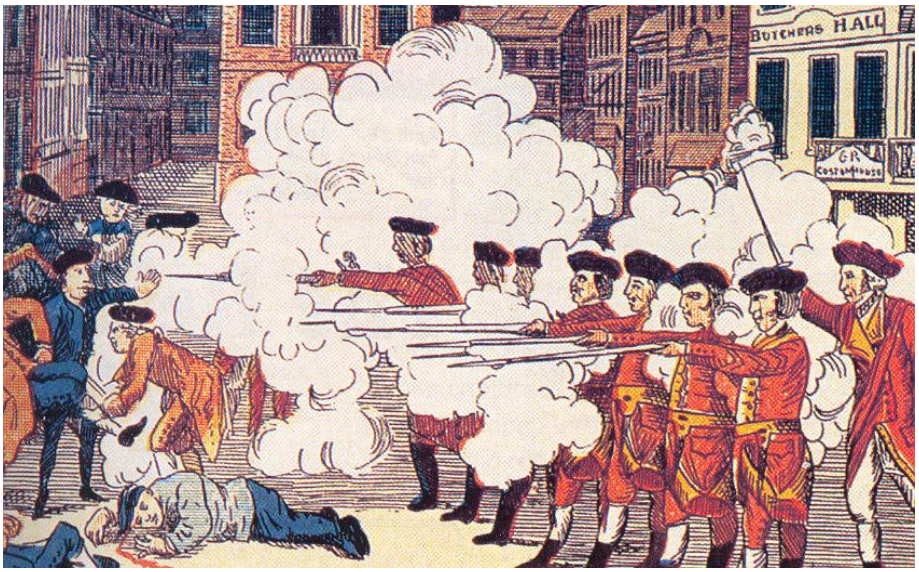


Figure 4.27. The Boston Massacre by Paul Revere. Colored etching by Paul Revere. United States History, Harcourt Horizons, 2005, p. 287.

Figure 4.28. The Boston Massacre with Crispus Attucks at center, March 5, 1770. "This picture of the Boston Massacre is based on the descriptions given during the trial of two British Soldiers who fired at the colonists." Engraving, 19th century. United States History, Harcourt Horizons, 2005, p. 287.

The fifth grade Harcourt Horizons textbook United States History, as noted, contains a variety of primary sources relating to the Boston Massacre. Included are five artistic representations, two maps and three quotes. To follow is the primary source list taken from the textbook The United States published by Scott Foresman and also addressing the Boston Massacre.

Primary Sources in The United States published by Scott Foresman

In regard to actual quotes, the Scott Foresman text only includes two in relation to the Boston Massacre. According to the text, Edward Garrick shouted "bloodyback" and "lobster" at Hugh White, the British soldier on duty that fateful night. (The United States, Scott Foresman, 2005, p. 276). These names referred to the bright red uniform jackets worn by the British soldiers. There are no quotes by anyone who witnessed the shootings or and from the trial that followed the incident.

Images identified as primary sources regarding the Boston Massacre that are included in The United States, published by Scott Foresman, begin with a painting of Crispus Attucks (Figure 4.29) who was, as noted, killed during the Boston shooting. The portrait shows a very dignified individual dressed as a gentleman. In relation to this portrait is a painting of the Boston Massacre that prominently depicts Crispus Attucks at the center of the shooting (Figure 4.30). In the background of this painting is the Old State House. A photograph of the Old State House is also shown on this page (Figure 4.31) as well as a photograph of the cobblestones near this building that have been preserved in memory of those who were killed that night by the British soldiers (Figures 4.32). Following this lesson in the textbook is a skill exercise based upon research and writing. Represented in this exercise are two images from the *Boston Gazette and Country Journal*. The newspaper page itself is presented on one page with an enlargement of an illustration of four coffins with skull and bones motifs on the coffins' lids (Figures 4.33 and 4.34). The following page presents the engraving by Paul Revere that depicts the British soldiers lined up regiment style with rifles pointed and firing at the rioting colonists.. In the background is an officer with his sword raised as if signaling for the soldiers to fire. The text from the newspaper reads as follows:

> Last Thursday, agreeable to a general request of the inhabitants, and by the consent of parents and friends, were carried to their grave in succession, the bodies of Samuel Gray, Samuel Maverick, James Caldwell, and Crispus Attucks, the unhappy victims who fell in the bloody massacre of Monday evening preceding! (p. 284)

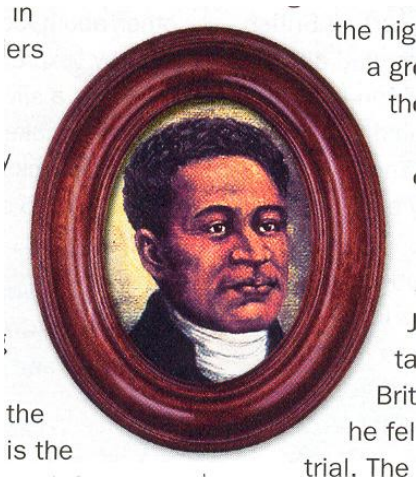


Figure 4.29. Crispus Attucks, one of the victims in the Boston Massace scandal. The United States, Scott Foresman, 2005, p. 277.

Figure 4.30. Painting of the Boston Massacre prominently depicting Crispis Attucks at center. The United States, Scott Foresman, 2005, p. 277.

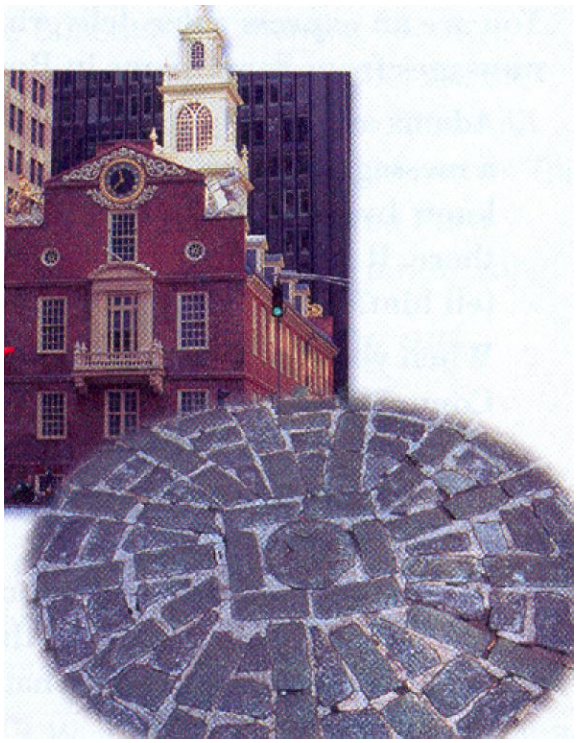


Figure 4.31. The Old State House in Boston. The United States, Scott Foresman, 2005, p. 277.

Figure 4.32. The foreground features cobblestones to mark the spot where Crispus Attucks and other protesters were shot and killed in what is referred to as the Boston Massacre. The United States, Scott Foresman, 2005, p. 277.

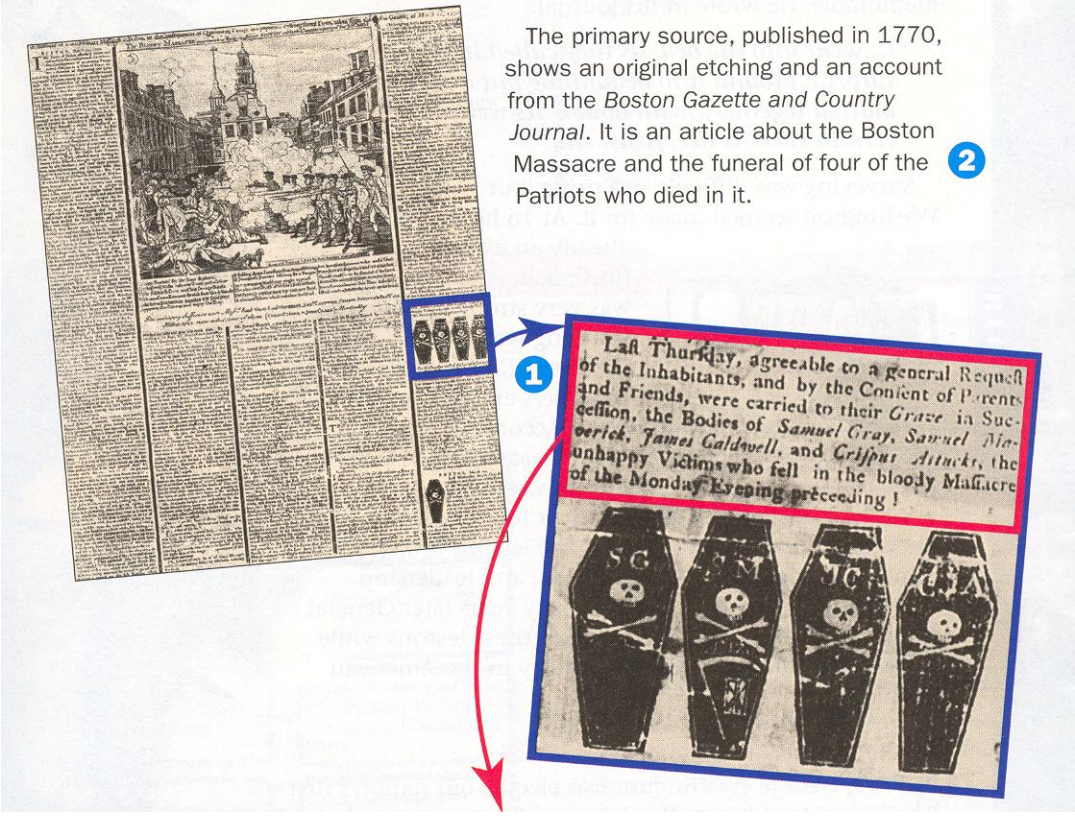


Figure 4.33 and 4.34. Newspaper published in 1770, shows an original etching and an account from the Boston Gazette and Country Journal. It is article about the Boston Massacre and the funeral of four of the Patriots who died in it. The United States, Scott Foresman, 2005, p. 285.

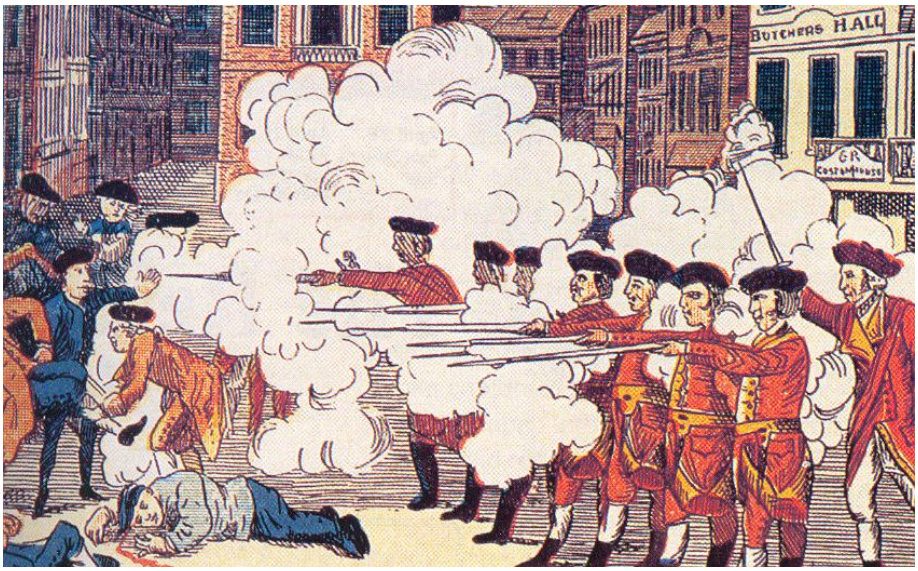


Figure 4.35. "This primary source is a famous engraving made by Paul Revere shortly after the Boston Massacre. It is in the newspaper article fro the Gazette and Country Journal", The United States, Scott Foresman, 2005, (p. 285).

In publishing The United States, Scott Foresman presents the fifth grade reader a plethora of primary sources in it's chapter on the Boston Massacre; those being one written document, two photographs, two pieces of artwork, and two quotations. This summation will conclude by producing the primary sources contained in the textbook Our Nation, published by Macmillan/McGraw-Hill and also concerning the Boston Massacre.

Primary Sources in Our Nation published by Macmillan/McGraw-Hill

Two quotes from the event referred to as the Boston Massacre begin with the word "lobsters" (Our Nation, Macmillan/McGraw-Hill, 2005, p. 264). This name, as previously noted, referred to the bright red uniform jackets worn by the British soldiers. The second quote comes from Crispus Attucks. He is quoted as yelling to the crowd "The way to get rid of these soldiers

is to attack the main guard" (p. 264). According to the text, this led to the crowd becoming riotous.

There is only one image identified as a primary source regarding the Boston Massacre that is included in Our Nation Published by Macmillan/McGraw-Hill. This image is a colored engraving of the Boston Massacre executed by Paul Revere (Figure 4.36). This image depicts British soldiers lined up regiment style with rifles pointed and firing at the rioting colonists.

Figure 4.36. Boston Massacre. Colored etching by Paul Revere. Our Nation, MacMillan/McGraw-Hill, 2005, p. 264.

Textbook publisher Macmillan/McGraw-Hill has supplied primary sources while discussing the Boston Massacre in its social studies textbook Our Nation. Included is one piece of artwork and two quotes.

Summarization of primary sources presented in the three social studies textbooks which address "The Boston Massacre", a harbinger of bloodshed to come in the American Revolution begin with breaking down the Harcourt Horizons textbook United States History. This textbook does not provide written documents, photos, maps, or artifacts. The text does however furnish five pieces of artwork, two maps, and three quotes. The United States, published by Scott Foresman and also examining "The Boston Massacre" through primary sources, does not produce maps or artifacts. Found in the textbook supporting their rendition of this historical event is one written document, two photos, two examples of artwork, and two quotes. Finally, Macmillan/McGraw-Hill's arrangement of "The Boston Massacre" is found in its list of primary sources to exclude written documents, photos, maps, or artifacts of the period. One art piece and two quotes are supplied.

The Boston Tea Party

The event preceding the American Revolution that has come to be called the Boston Tea Party, the dumping of British tea into Boston Harbor by colonists disguised as Mohawk Indians, was the result of a law passed by British Parliament called the Tea Act. This act stated that only the British company East India Company would have exclusive rights to supply tea to the colonies. In addition to this new law governing the import of tea to the colonies, merchants who sold tea in the colonies had to pay higher taxes when buying it for their shops. This in turn forced store owners to increase the price of tea sold in the colonies. The goal of the new Tea Act was two-fold; first, giving exclusive rights to the East India Company for importing tea was to help this company recover from financial struggles, the second goal of the Tea Act was to bring

revenue into Britain. In opposition to this new law, the colonists refused to allow any ships carrying British tea to unload their cargo in any colonial port.

The growing tension surrounding the Tea Act reached a climax in the later part of 1773 when three British ships carrying British tea sailed into Boston Harbor. On the night of December 16, colonists who were part of the newly formed Sons of Liberty boarded the ships disguised as Mohawks Indians. After chopping open the wooden chests laden with tea, the contents were then dumped into Boston Harbor. This act of retaliation by the colonists led to outrage among British leaders as well as King George III, subsequently setting the stage for the revolution to come.

Primary Sources in United States History published by Harcourt Horizons

In Harcourt Horizons' 5th grade social studies textbook United States History, there are no quotes relating to the Boston Tea Party. However, two artistic images relating to the event are available to students and one artifact. The first image is a lithograph by National Curries, 1846, titled The Destruction of Tea at Boston Harbor, 1773 (Figure 4.37). The image shows colonists dressed as Mohawk Indians throwing wooden crates over the side of a ship into a harbor. There is a crowd of people on the pier waving their hats in what appears to be an act of cheering them on. The purpose of this painting was most definitely to depict the colonists' actions in a rather humorous and positive light. The artifact noted is that of a green bottle containing tea leaves (Figure 4.38). This artifact's label reads "TEA THROWN INTO BOSTON HARBOR DEC 16 1773". This particular artifact is supposedly actual tea from the Boston Tea Party. The second art image is a painting of Samuel Adams by John Singleton Copley, 1772 (Figure 4.39). This painting is included in this section of the textbook because he helped plan the Boston Tea Party.

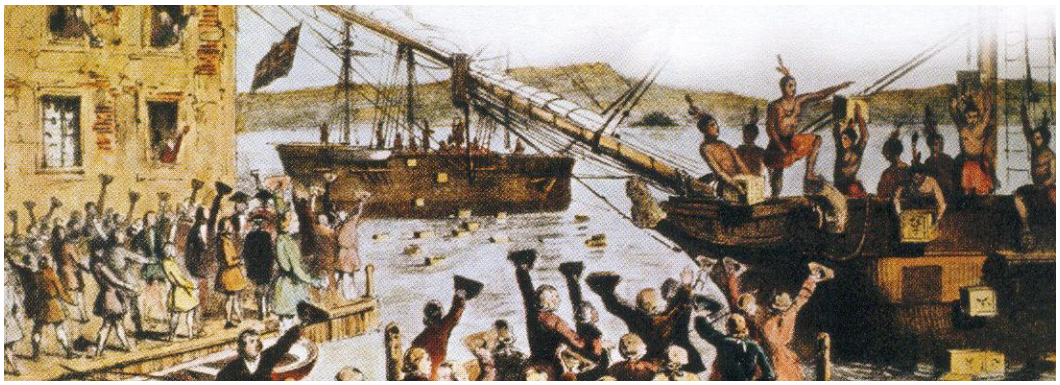


Figure 4.37. The Destruction of Tea at Boston Harbor, 1773. Lithograph by Nathaniel Currier, 1846. United States History, Harcourt Horizons, 2005, p. 288.

Figure 4.38. Tea leaves in a bottle thought to be from the event referred to as the Boston Tea Party. United States History, Harcourt Horizons, 2005, p. 289.

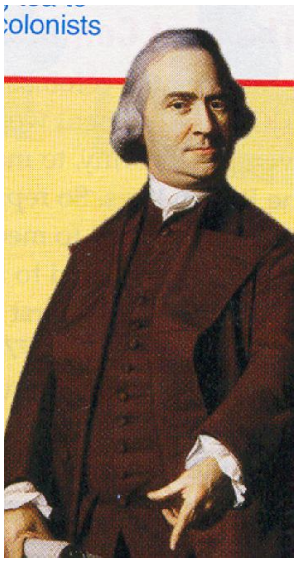


Figure 4.39. Samuel Adams (1722-1803). Oil on canvas, by John Singelton Copley, 1772. United States History, Harcourt Horizons, 2005, p. 289.

Harcourt Horizons' social studies textbook United States History, gives the fifth grade reader one artifact and two artistic pictures when supplying primary sources for it's the Boston Tea Party chapter. This summation is followed by a list of primary sources relating to the Boston Tea Party provided by the Scott Foresman textbook The United States.

Primary Sources in The United States published by Scott Foresman

In the Scott Foresman 5th grade social studies text, there is a single quote concerning the Boston Tea Party. While committing the offence of dumping tea into Boston Harbor, the Sons of Liberty reportedly shouted "Boston Harbor a teapot tonight!" (2005, p. 279). The quote obviously lends support to the colonists' feelings opposition to the Tea Act.

One image that can be identified as primary sources regarding the Boston Tea Party tax can be found The United States, published by Scott Foresman. This image is a 1793 colored engraving depicts the Sons of Liberty, disguised as Mohawks Indians, dumping tea from wooden

crates into Boston Harbor (Figure 4.40). There is a crowd of colonists in the background observing the event.

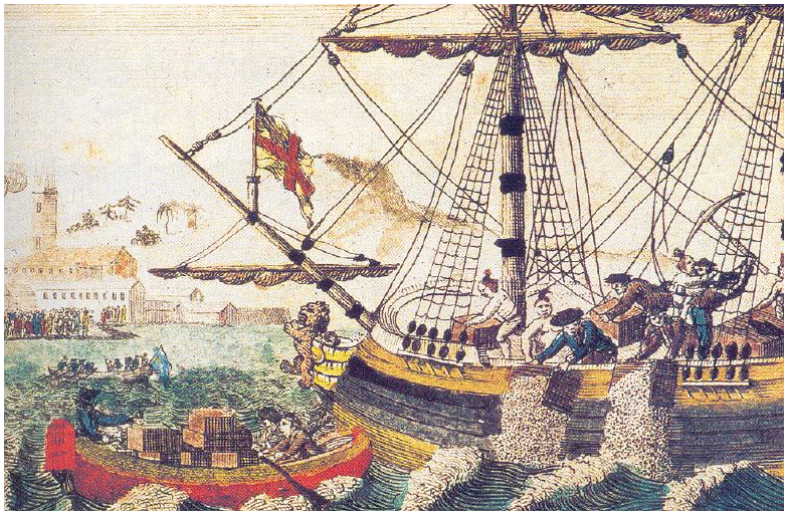


Figure 4.40. The Boston Tea Party, 16 December 1773 (the earliest known American depiction of the event). Color engraving, 1793. The United States, Scott Foresman, 2005, p. 279.

The United States, a Scott Foresman 5th grade social studies reader, produces one art piece and a single quote to review the Boston Tea Party and provide primary sources. The succeeding 5th grade history textbook analyzed for primary sources and supporting its telling of the Boston Tea Party, is Our Nation, a Macmillan/McGraw-Hill publication.

Primary Sources in Our Nation published by MacMillan-McGraw-Hill

In MacMillan-McGraw-Hill's 5th grade social studies text, there are two quotes relating to the Boston Tea Party. The first quote comes from Abigail Adams, the wife of John Adams. As previously noted, John Adams helped plan the Boston Tea Party. According the textbook, she is quoted as having stated that "The flame is kindled [lit] and like Lightning it catches from Soul to Soul" (2005, p. 265). This statement was supposedly made in early December referring to the

colonists plans of some kind of retaliatory action in response to the new tax on tea. The second quote was made by colonists who were disguised as Mohawk Indians. These men, while making their way to Boston Harbor, stated "Boston will be a teapot tonight" (p. 265). This particular choice of words is possibly why the event came to be referred to as the Boston Tea Party.

The Macmillan/McGraw-Hill publication Our Nation provides 2 quotes as examples of primary sources in its digestion of the Boston Tea Party material.

The summary of primary sources from three fifth grade social studies textbooks concerning "The Boston Tea Party" an event of protest over tea taxation begin with the scrutiny of the textbook United States History published by Harcourt Horizons. This textbook produces scant examples of primary sources. Absent in this textbook are written documents, photographs, maps, or quotes. What has been supplied is one relative artifact and two artistic representations. Examining The United States, a Scott Foresman publication, it's found the Boston Tea Party is not addressed with primary sources in the form of written documents, photos, maps, or artifacts, but one sole art piece and a quote. Our Nation, provided by Macmillan/McGraw-Hill is the third textbook used in this study. This volume is devoid of written documents, photos, maps, artifacts of the day, or artwork. Two quotes act as primary sources to relay this account of the Boston Tea Party.

Paul Revere's Ride

The now legendary ride of Paul Revere was to serve two purposes. First, minutemen were to be alerted when the British set off for Concord from Boston; the patriot militias did not know if the British soldiers were coming by land or by sea. The planned journey to Concord was to seize weapons that the militia had been storing there approximately one year. The second reason

was to alert Sam Adams and John Hancock that the British were coming to Concord. The British had orders to arrest both men because they were leading supporters of liberty.

Paul Revere, a silversmith in Boston, learned that British troops were withdrawing from Boston on the night of April 18, 1775. He set out on horseback to warn the militia in Concord. Along the way to Concord he was joined by William Dawes, a shoemaker and friend. Along the way a doctor named Samuel Prescott joined the two men.

Primary Sources in United States History published by Harcourt Horizons

In Harcourt Horizons' 5th grade social studies text, there are no quotes relating to the Boston Tea Party. One artifact and one photo relating to Paul Revere's ride can be found in United States History, published by Harcourt Horizons. The artifact is a lantern (Figure 4.41). This lantern is one of two lanterns that hung in a church whose purpose was to signal whether the British were going to Concord by land or sea. The photograph is a statue of Paul Revere that is located near the Old North Church in Boston, Massachusetts (Figure 4.42). This statue depicts Paul Revere on galloping horse as if he were once again warning the colonists of the British march on Concord.

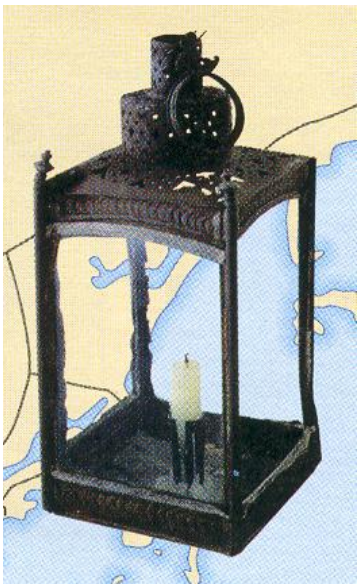


Figure 4.41. Lantern that hung in the church to signal whether the British were going by land or sea. United States History, Harcourt Horizons, 2005, p. 291.

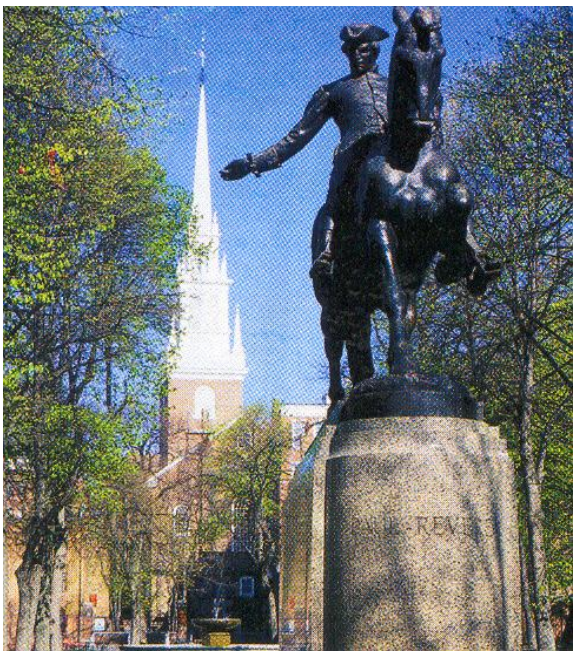


Figure 4.42. Statue of Paul Revere. "This statue of Paul Revere stands near the Old North Church in Boston, Massachusetts" Statue. United States History, Harcourt Horizons, 2005, p. 292.

United States History, a work by Harcourt Horizons, produces two primary sources in its 5th grade social studies presentation about Paul Revere's Ride. Supplied is one artifact and one photograph. A summary of primary sources endowed by The United States, a Scott Foresman textbook for the 5th grade history student ensues.

Primary Sources in The United States published by Scott Foresman

In the Scott Foresman 5th grade social studies text, there are a number of quotes by different parties. First, in reference to why the British are marching on Concord, their orders were to "seize and destroy" (2005, p. 287). This of course refers to the arsenal that the patriot militia had stored in Concord. Next there are quotes from Paul Revere describing the events that unfolded that fateful night. He is quoted as having said that "Two friends rowed me across the Charles River" (p. 287). Revere also said that he rode west "upon a very good horse" and that "I alarmed almost every house, till I got to Lexington" (p. 287). Lastly, the publisher has included two stanzas from Henry Wadsworth Longfellow's 1863 poem titled "Paul Revere's Ride." The entry is as follows:

> Listen my children and you shall hear
> Of the midnight ride of Paul Revere
> On the eighteenth of April, in Seventy-five;
> Hardly a man is now alive
> Who remembers that famous day and year.
>
> He said to his friend, "If the British march
> By land or sea from the town to-night,

Hang a lantern aloft in the belfry arch

Of the North Church tower as a signal light,--

One if by land, and two if by sea;

And I on the opposite shore will be,

Ready to ride and spread the alarm

Through every Middlesex village and farm,

For the country folk to be up and to arm (p. 287).

This poem is one of the most memorable accolades to the historic ride of Paul Revere because children have memorized it in grade school for over one hundred years.

In regard to images, only one is representative of Paul Revere's ride in The United States, published by Scott Foresman. This image is a 19th century colored engraving of Paul Revere's Ride from Boston to Lexington, April 18, 1775 to warn colonists that the British were advancing." (Figure 4.43). This particular depiction clearly illustrates the urgency that surrounded the famous ride.

Figure 4.43. Paul Revere's Ride from Boston to Lexington, April 18, 1775. "Paul Revere warned colonists that the British were advancing."19th century colored engraving. The United States, Scott Foresman, 2005, p. 277.

A 5th grade edition by Scott Foresman titled The United States summarizes Paul Revere's Ride with one written document, one art piece, and four quotes serving as primary sources. The examination of primary sources continues presently by inventorying Our Nation, published by Macmillan/McGraw-hill.

Primary Sources in Our Nation published by MacMillan/McGraw-Hill

In the MacMillan/McGraw-Hill 5th grade social studies text, there are no quotes. However, there is the inclusion of "Paul Revere's Ride" by Henry Wadsworth Longfellow. The inclusion in the text is as follows:

Listen my children and you shall hear

Of the midnight ride of Paul Revere

On the eighteenth of April, in Seventy-five;

Hardly a man is now alive

Who remembers that famous day and year.

He said to his friend, “If the British march

By land or sea from the town to-night,

Hang a lantern aloft in the belfry arch

Of the North Church tower as a signal light,--

One if by land, and two if by sea;

And I on the opposite shore will be,

Ready to ride and spread the alarm

Through every Middlesex village and farm,

For the country folk to be up and to arm.”

Then he said, “Good-night!” and with muffled oar

Silently rowed to the Charlestown shore, ...

Your know the rest. In the books you have read,

How the British regulars fired and fled,--

How the farmers gave them ball for ball,

From behind each fence and farmyard wall,

Chasing the red-coats down the lane,

Then crossing the fields to emerge again

Under the trees at the turn of the road,

And only pausing to fire and load.

So through the night rode Paul Revere;

And so through the night went his cry of alarm

To every Middlesex village and farm,--

A cry of defiance and not of fear,

A voice in the darkness, a knock at the door,

And a word that shall echo forevermore!

For, borne on the night-wind of the Past,

Through all our history, to the last,

In the hour of darkness and peril and need,

The people will waken and listen to hear

The hurrying hoof-beats of that steed,

And the midnight message of Paul Revere (p.p. 256-7)

Followings this poem is a painting showing an aerial view of Paul Revere on his horse riding through a small community (Figure 4.44). Various houses have lanterns or candles aglow from within as though the people living there have just been awakened. The last image related to Paul Revere is a photograph of the statue of him found in Boston, Massachusetts near the Old North Church (Figure 4.45). This statue depicts Revere in a rather gallant pose as warning the colonists of the upcoming

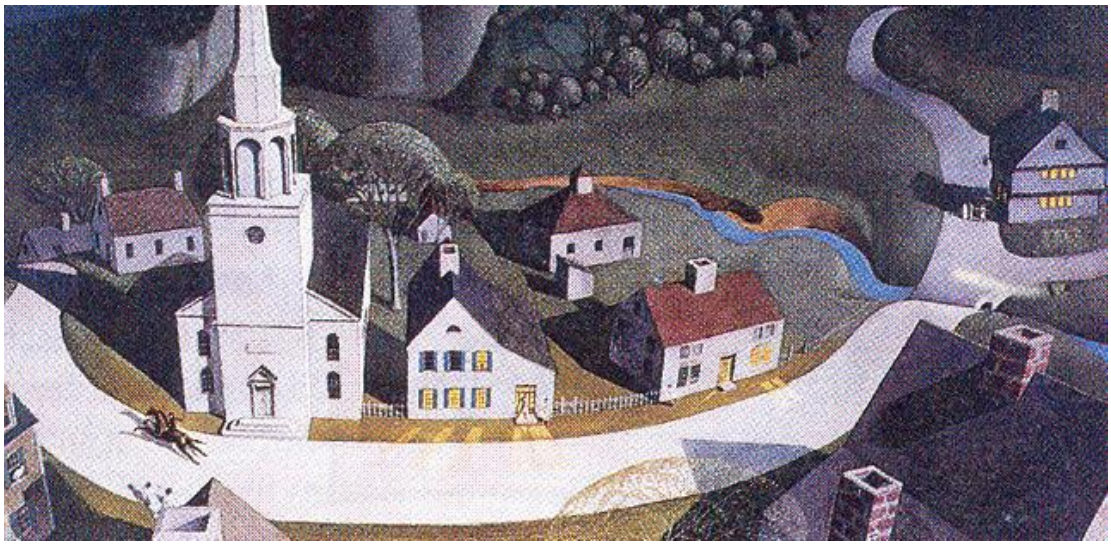


Figure 4.44. Paul Revere riding to Lexington, Massachusetts, warning minutemen that British troops are headed for Concord. Our Nation, MacMillan/McGraw-Hill, 2005, p. 261.

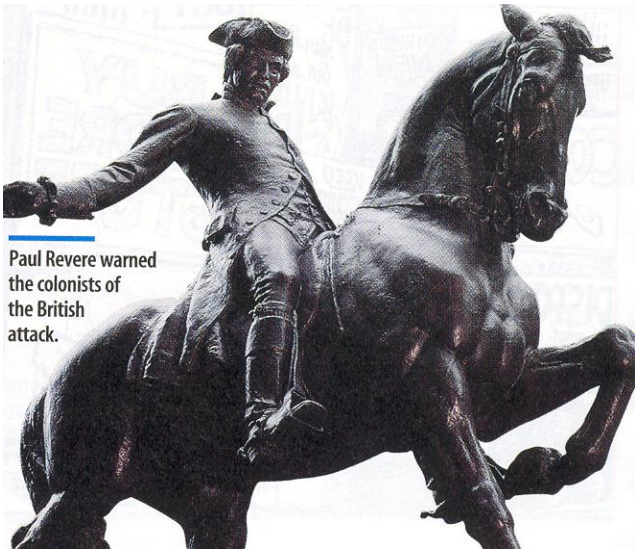


Figure 4.45. Statue of Paul Revere which stands near the Old North Church in Boston, Massachusetts. Our Nation, MacMill/McGraw-Hill, 2005, p. 270.

In Our Nation, a social studies textbook created by Macmillan/McGraw-Hill for the 5th grade classroom, satisfies the use of primary sources relating to the Paul Revere's Ride by supplying one written document, one photo, and two examples of artwork.

The summary of primary sources from three fifth grade social studies textbooks and how they address "Paul Revere's Ride", warning colonist of the British troops movements and beginning of the Revolutionary War start with cataloging primary sources in Harcourt Horizons version of "Paul Reveres Ride." As relayed in their textbook United States History, missing are written documents, maps, art, or quotes. One photograph and a period artifact are present. The United States, a Scott Foresman préis, does not provide primary sources with photos, maps, artifacts, or quotes. It does include one written document and a piece of art. Finally, when perusing Our Nation, a Macmillan/McGraw-Hill textbook, the student will not find maps, artifacts, or quotes as primary sources. Provided is a written document, one photo and two artistic pieces to support the telling of "Paul Revere's Ride".

Lexington and Concord

The battles of Lexington and Concord began on the morning of April 19, 1775. British soldiers arrived in Lexington at approximately 5:00 A.M. These troops surrounded the minutemen who were gathered there to combat their British opponents. The British easily won after a short battle. Following this skirmish, the British soldiers began their march to Concord where they planned to seize military supplies that the militia had amassed over the past year. While making their way to Concord, the British experienced a brief battle with minutemen at the North Bridge. Realizing that they were now outnumbered by the colonial militia, the British began their 20 mile retreat back to Boston. During this retreat, the British were fired upon by

thousands of Patriots who hide in forested areas. Upon reaching Boston, the British soldiers realized that approximately 250 of their men had either been killed or wounded. The Patriots lost approximately 50 minutemen while approximately 40 were wounded. These two battles marked the beginning of the American Revolution.

Primary Sources in United States History published by Harcourt Horizons

The Harcourt Horizons' 5th grade social studies text contains only one written source relating to the battles at Lexington and Concord. Years following the American Revolution, Ralph Waldo Emerson penned the phrase "the shot heard round the world" in reference to the first shot that was fired at Lexington (p. 292). No one has ever determined whether that shot was fired by minuteman or a British soldier.

Two images relating to the battles of Lexington and Concord can be found in United States History, published by Harcourt Horizons. The first is a photograph of the reenactment of the battle at Concord's North Bridge (Figure 4.46). In this photograph, the actors, dressed in white period attire uniforms, are marching across the bridge. The second image is also a photograph of another reenactment (Figure 4.47). This photograph is of a group of dressed as minutemen at Minute Man National Park in Concord, Massachusetts. It should be noted that these men are dressed as frontiersmen instead of as soldiers in uniforms.

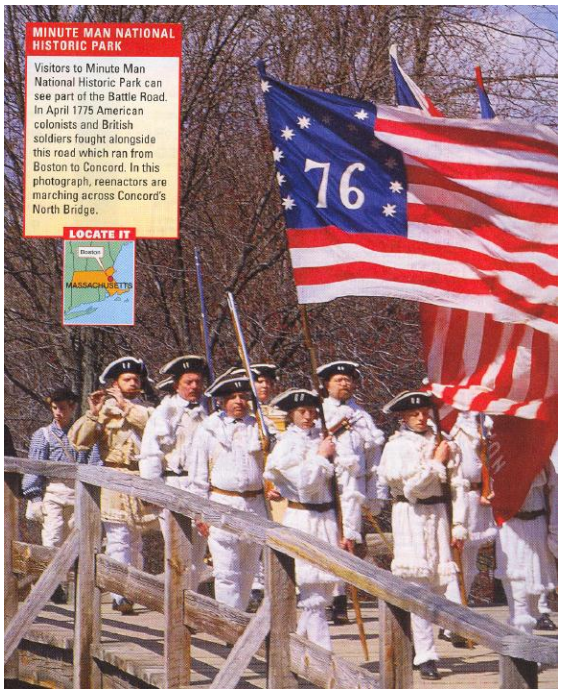


Figure 4.46. "Visitors to Minute Men National Park can see part of the Battle Road. In April 1775 American colonists fought alongside this road which ran from Boston to Concord. In this photograph, actors are marching across Concord's North Bridge." Photograph of reenactment. United States History, Harcourt Horizons, 2005, p.p. 266-7.

Figure 4.47. "A group of men dressed as Minutemen reenact the battle at Concord at Minute Man National Park in Concord, Massachusetts." Photograph of reenactment. United States History, Harcourt Horizons, 2005, p. 291.

A 5th grade Harcourt Horizons precis, United States History introduces primary sources while digesting the Battle of Lexington and Concord with one written phrase and two photographs. Succeeding text will address The United States, a 5th grade history volume published by Scott Foresman.

Primary Sources in The United States published by Scott Foresman

There are a number of quotes in the Scott Foresman 5th grade social studies text that focus on the battles of Lexington and Concord. First, John Parker is known to have said, "Stand your ground. Don't fire unless fired upon, but if they mean to have a war, let it begin here" (Scott Foresman, 2005, p. 288). Parker meant the Patriots should remain where they were and not retreat. As the action progressed, Parker's men were surrounded by the British soldiers; British Major John Pitcairn angrily shouted "Ye villains, ye rebels! Lay down your arms!" (p. 288). During the skirmish that followed, a shot was fired by one of the two opponents and the battle ensued. This has been referred to as "the shot heard round the world" (p. 289). This quote is important in the study of the American Revolution because it symbolizes a war that came to affect not only the colonists in the Americas but people all over the world. The last quote dealing with the battles of Lexington and Concord comes from a British Lieutenant John Barker. According to Barker, "We were fired on from houses and behind tree…We were fired on from all sides" (p. 289). This type of warfare surprised the British soldiers because they had been taught to go into battle like gentlemen and fight in formations instead of a type of warfare that resembled hunting.

In regard to images, four are representative of the Lexington and Concord battles in The United States, published by Scott Foresman. The first is a painting titled "The Dawn of Liberty"

by J. Henry Sandham, 1886 (Figure 4.48). This painting depicts the battle between the British and the colonial militia at Lexington. In this painting an officer on a horse is ordering his troops to fire on the colonists. The second image is artifact which is a drum that Patriots took into battle (Figure 4.49). Drums such as this provided a cadence by which the militia marched into battle. The third image is a 19th century colored engraving of the Battle of Lexington (Figure 4.50). This painting shows the colonial militia clashing with British in almost hand to hand combat. The last image is an artifact. This flag minutemen carried into battle at Concord (Figure 4.51). The image on the flag is that of an armored arm and hand carrying a sword. The background is red being representative of blood.

Figure 4.48. "The Dawn of Liberty." The Battle of Lexington. Painting, J. Henry Sandham, 1886. The United States, Scott Foresman, 2005, p. 260-1.

Figure 4.49. “Patriots carried drums like these into battle.” Drum. The United States, Scott Foresman, 2005, p. 288.

Figure 4.50. The Battle of Lexington. Colored engraving, 19th century. The United States, Scott Foresman, 2005, pg. 289.

Figure 4.51. "Minutemen carried this flag into the battle of Concord." Flag, 1775. The United States, Scott Foresman, 2005, p. 289.

The 5th grade Scott Foresman social studies textbook The United States has afforded the student several primary sources in regard to the Battle of Lexington and Concord. Their count being two artifacts, two examples of art, and four quotes. Our Nation, a publication for the 5th grade social studies student by Macmillan/McGraw-Hill, continues this summation and will subsequently show primary sources.

Primary Sources in Our Nation published by MacMillan/McGraw-Hill

The MacMillan/McGraw-Hill 5th grade social studies text contains quotes by two individuals. The first is by John Parker who was a militia captain. He quoted as having said, "Stand your ground!" (2005, p. 271). Also, he was supposed to have told the militia that were with him "Don't fire unless fired upon, but if they mean to have war, let it begin here" (p. 271).

The other individual that this textbook quotes is a British officer. Although not identified, this man is quoted as saying, "Heavy fire from all sides…from walls, fences, houses, trees, and barns" (p. 272).

Two images that relate the battles of Lexington and Concord can be found in Our Nation, published by MacMillan/McGraw-Hill. The first is a photo of a statue presenting a minuteman (Figure 4.52). He is poised with a musket ready to be fired. The expression on his face is one of courage and determination. The other image found in this textbook that relates to these two battles is a musket (Figure 4.53). This artifact was known as the "Militiaman's Fowler" because it was made up of gun parts from old weapons and worn out gun musket parts. Muskets of this type were used in the battles of Lexington and Concorde. A possible explanation as why this artifact was included in the textbook could be to show the reader how difficult it was for the colonists to wage a war with weapons that were far from being representative of military issued arms.

Figure 4.52. Minute Man statue in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. Our Nation, MacMillan/McGraw-Hill, 2005, p. 266.

Exploring
TECHNOLOGY

Muskets

The **Militiaman's Fowler**, used by the colonists, was usually made out of parts from older, worn-out weapons. The musket was a firearm that was used before the invention of the rifle. They were six or seven feet long, and weighed up to 40 pounds. They worked very simply. The trigger created a spark that lit gunpowder which exploded, forcing the bullet out of the gun.

Muskets often could not hit a target at more than 100 yards. Their bullets had no spiral so they left the gun more like a shot-put than a football. Because muskets need a spark to fire, they often didn't work at all in the rain.

Why was it difficult for a musket to hit targets far away? In what situations did muskets not work at all?

Their bullets had no spiral. Muskets often did not work at all in the rain.

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After a
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More than 90 Brit
and 174 wounded
kets in Exploring

Patrick Henry

On March 23,
argued before the
ginia House of Bu
troops were in Bo

Figure 4.53. Revolutionary period musket known as the Militiaman's Fowler. Our Nation, MacMillan/McGraw-Hill, 2005, p. 272.

Publisher Macmillan/McGraw-Hill introduces the 5th grade pupil to primary sources in the telling of the Battle of Lexington and Concord by way of its social studies book Our Nation. Contained in this textbook are one photograph, one artifact, and three quotes.

The summary of primary sources provided by three fifth grade social studies textbooks relaying the events known as "The Battle of Lexington and Concord", a turning point in the American Revolutionary War begin with inventorying the 5th grade textbook United States History, a Harcourt Horizons publication. The primary source list regarding "The Battle of Lexington and Concord" finds quotes, maps, artifacts, and artworks absent. What has been included is two photos and a single written document. The next textbook The United States by Scott Foresman Publishing omits written documents, photographs, maps, but does include two period artifacts, two art pieces, and four quotes. Finally, Our Nation, a textbook created by Macmillan/McGraw-Hill is examined for its presentation of primary sources when introducing "The Battle of Lexington and Concord" to the fifth grade student. Not addressed in this volume are written documents, maps, and artwork pieces. Our Nation does include one photograph, one artifact of the period, and three quotes.

The Battle of Bunker Hill

After the colonists' defeat at Lexington and victory at Concord, Massachusetts citizens were angry with the British occupation. In June 1775 colonial patriots began to build earthworks (fortified walls of earth and stone), outside the city of Boston. These structures would help the colonists defend themselves in the event of future battles with the British who had now occupied Boston. The minutemen at the time controlled the countryside outside of Boston. Therefore, the only way of escape for the British to leave Boston safely was by sea.

British General Gage learned that the colonists were building new earthworks on Breed's Hill which was located across the Charles River. Bunker Hill overlooked Breed's Hill. Upon hearing this news, General Gage ordered British ships to fire on these colonists while British soldiers were sent to capture Breed's Hill. After three attempts, the British took the hill, their casualties ranging from 1000 to 2400 soldiers killed or wounded. The colonists' casualties numbered approximately 350 men killed or wounded. The Battle of Bunker Hill was the first major battle of the American Revolution.

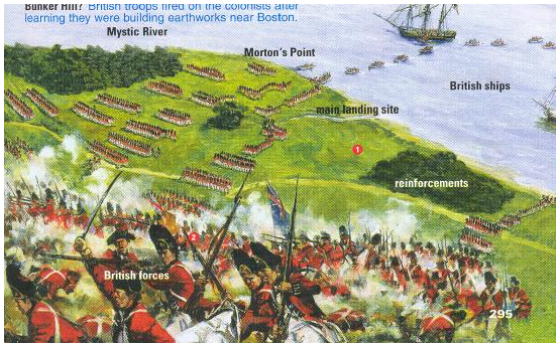
Three examples of how the National Archives can be employed can be seen in the descriptions of the Battle of Bunker Hill. This example is provided to make the reader aware that every individual who uses these analysis tools will inevitably reach different conclusions as to how they answer the suggested questions. This is the basis for historical thinking.

Primary Sources in United States History published by Harcourt Horizons

The fighting at the Battle of Bunker Hill was so intense that the colonial commander Israel Putman is reported to have said to his troops, "Don't fire until you see the whites of their eyes" (United States History, 2005, p. 295). This order was given so the soldiers would not waste ammunition. According to Harcourt Horizons, approximately 1,000 of 2,400 British soldiers were killed or wounded. The colonists lost 350 militia men to death or wounding. When news of the Battle of Bunker Hill reached London and the attention of George II, the King issued a proclamation intended to crush the rebellion. In the document, he included the phrase "bring the traitors to justice" (p. 295).

The colored (split) illustration, designed specifically for textbook use, gives the viewer a bird's eye view of the battle at Bunker Hill (Figures 4.54 and 4.55). The poses are quite effective

because it affords the student the ability to witness the battle as it happens while simultaneously giving visual information as to the reinforcements of the British onslaught. The perspective of this work brings attention to the colonial flag. The framing of this piece includes British soldiers arriving on land by rowboat from their ship, rolling hills in the background, a barricade, and colonial militia firing upon the British. The distance for this piece is immense. The viewer sees both the militia and the British soldiers in the foreground while simultaneously seeing Breeds Hill that overlooking the battle and a British ship at anchor in the bay. This subject is important in the understanding of the American Revolution because of its significance in stirring emotions of anger among the colonists in regard to the British Crown. Included in this illustration are a great number of British soldiers, a very small gathering of militiamen, smoke from musket fire, rolling hills of the area, and Breed's Hill which overlooks the combat zone. Excluded from this illustration is a representation of the number of colonial militia present at the event (2005, p. 296). This action only resulted in making the revolutionary situation worse.



Figures 4.54 and 4.55. The Battle of Bunker Hill. Color illustration for textbook. United States History, Harcourt Horizons, 2005, p.p. 294-5.

In perusing the fifth grade Harcourt Horizons textbook United States History, four examples of primary sources emerge in relaying the event the Battle of Bunker Hill. They number as one written document, two art pieces, and one quote. To continue the summation, subsequent primary sources regarding the Battle of Bunker Hill will be found in The United States; a textbook distributed by Scott Foresman for the 5th grade social studies classroom.

Primary Sources in The United States published by Scott Foresman

Quotes concerning the Battle of Bunker Hill from the Scott Foresman text begin with Colonel Prescott telling his British troops, "Don't fire until you see the whites of their eyes" (2005, p. 290). This directive was made so the soldiers could save ammunition and gunpowder. One minuteman involved in the battle said, "The enemy advanced and fired very hotly on the fort" (p. 290). As the battle progressed and even though Prescott's men were nearly out of ammunition, British officers continued yelling "Push on!" and captured the fort after a third push (p. 291). However, this did not deter the colonists. A Patriot general by the name of Nathanael Greene is reported to having said, "I wish we could sell them another hill at the same price" (p. 291). The Foresman textbook also includes a quote by British officer John Pitcairn who leapt on the wall of the American fort and shouted, "The day is ours" (p. 306). Pitcairn hardly had time to finish his cry when Peter Salem, an African American soldier shot and killed him.

Primary sources continue with the illustration of the ensuing battle that took place at Bunker Hill during the American Revolution (Figure 4.56). The poses of the men involved in the battle all can be explained as organized chaos. The perspective of this work draws the viewer to focus on Peter Salem who is seen at the left shooting a British soldier atop a barricade. The framing that makes Salem stand out are the militia behind him and British soldiers in the

foreground. Distance adds to this painting because the British soldiers are so close to the viewer. Their facial expressions are quite visible. In the background stands Salem and other militiamen fighting for the revolutionary cause. The artist sought to give the viewer a different angle than most by putting the viewer among the British. The subject is important because this was one of the key battles that led to the colonial revolt. Although not a decisive battle for them, the feelings generated by this battle further fueled their determination to free themselves from British control. Included in this illustration are detailed depictions of British soldiers, a wall built by the militiamen as a type of fortress, and what appears to be an angry mob attempting to defend themselves from the British soldiers while simultaneously involved in warfare. Excluded in this illustration are black men other than Salem and young men.

Figure 4.56. "Peter Salem (at left shooting musket) was one of the American heroes at the Battle of Bunker Hill. Illustration by J. E. Taylor, 1794. The United States, Scott Foresman, 2005, p. 306.

The United States, a fifth grade textbook for social studies presented by Scott Foresman, has included in its section covering the Battle of Bunker Hill primary sources that include one

piece of artwork and five quotes. To follow, Our Nation, a history textbook published by Macmillan/McGraw-Hill introduces primary sources relating to the Battle of Bunker Hill.

Primary Sources in Our Nation published by Macmillan/McGraw-Hill

The Macmillan/McGraw-Hill begins with a summary of the event to follow. Shortly after noon on the day of the Battle of Bunker Hill, British troops marched on the fort. In order to conserve the colonists' ammunition, a militia officer reportedly ordered, "Don't fire till you see the whites of their eyes." According to the MacMillan/McGraw textbook, there is some confusion as to who made the statement. The two possible individuals are Colonel William Prescott or General Israel Putnam (MacMillan/McGraw-Hill, 2005, p. 273).

Following the Battle of Bunker Hill, Benjamin Franklin contacted a friend by post who was a member of Parliament. In his letter, Franklin wrote

> You have begun to burn our towns, and murder our people. Look upon your hands! They are stained with the blood of your relations! You and I were long friends; you are now my enemy, and I am yours" (MacMillan/McGraw-Hill, 2005, p. 274).

The Battle of Bunker Hill was a turning point for the colonists on their road to freedom. This battle made both colonists and British alike realize that there was no turning back in the revolution to come.

The painting included in this section portrays an emotional moment in the Battle of Bunker Hill (Figure 4.57). The pose is quite substantial because it reflects the topography of the ascending hills where the battle was fought. The perspective of this work comes to that of a fallen militiaman and two other militiamen behind him. The framing of this piece is primarily of

the British overpowering the revolutionary militia. The distance of this work provides the viewer of a close up encounter with the event because it appears that one is standing close by watching it unfold. The subject is the death of a revolutionary with another two dutifully protecting him. Included in this work are Included in this painting are a centralization of British soldiers in combat with militiamen, a fallen revolutionary, and an ominous, foreboding cloud in the upper right hand corner overshadowing the conflict. This cloud appears to be a harbinger of events to follow. Excluded from this work is any indication of the colonists actually breaking the law and any sign of appreciation for the forces that protected them in becoming what would eventually be referred to as a nation.

Figure 4.57. The Battle of Bunker Hill. Painting by John Trumbell, 1786. Our Nation, MacMillan/McGraw-Hill, 2005, p. 274.

Also, included in primary sources is a combined presentation of four artifacts (Figure 4.58). These include a metal lantern that was utilized for signaling messages, a pewter plate

which the colonial men used dining, a pewter spoon to eat with, and a glass flask to contain the beverage of choice. Special qualities about these pieces are reminiscent of the common working man. These artifacts tell us that civilization in the Americas and Europe was evolving as it never had before. The common man now could now possess items that at one time only the wealthy could afford. Similar item today can be seen in electric lights, metal flasks, glass plates, and common silverware.

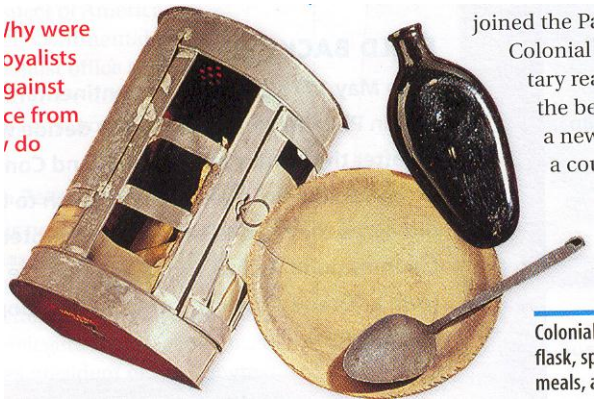


Figure 4.58. "Colonial soldiers carried a flask, spoon, and a plate for meals, and a lantern (left) for sending messages." Our Nation, MacMillan/McGraw-Hill, 2005, p. 275.

The fifth grade Macmillan/McGraw-Hill social studies textbook presents the Battle of Bunker Hill with primary sources which include one written document, one piece of art, and four quotes.

The summation of primary sources furnished in the three fifth grade social studies textbook while analyzing "The Battle of Bunker Hill", a major harbinger of all out revolt and war against the British, begin with United States History, a Harcourt Horizons work. The inventory of primary sources attributed to "The Battle of Bunker Hill" lack photos, maps, or

artifacts of the period. One document, two art pieces, and one quote are provided. The United States, a social studies textbook for the 5th grader published by Scott Foresman, omits written documents, photos, maps, and artifacts. A piece of artwork is furnished and five quotes. Macmillan/McGraw-Hill's version of "The Bunker Hill" story is devoid of photographs or maps. Supplied as primary sources are one written document, an art piece, four period artifacts, and one quote.

The Declaration of Independence

The document on which the United States bases its core existence, the Declaration of Independence, is a written entity that summarizes truths the colonists believed to be basic rights to which every free man is entitled. In addition to this philosophy, the document lists grievances the colonists had with King George III of England and his government. They also sought to break the political and economic ties with the country that had ruled their lives for generations. Thomas Jefferson drafted the Declaration of Independence between the dates of June 11 and June 28, 1776. Jefferson was chosen to be the official author of this document by his esteemed peers who had been drafted from the thirteen colonies. All three textbooks offer primary sources related to this famous document.

Primary Sources in United States History published by Harcourt Horizons

Published quotes concerning the Declaration of Independence in Harcourt Horizon's 5th grade social studies textbook focus on a resolution, text from the original document, as well as one excerpt from a letter. The resolution, which is part of a speech Richard Henry Lee of Virginia, made to the Second Continental Congress on June 7, 1776. In his speech, he expressed

his belief that the colonies no longer owed allegiance to the king of Britain. He suggested that the colonies make a resolution. This led to the Declaration of Independence. The resolution read, "Resolved: That these united colonies are, and of right ought to be free and independent States" (United States History, Harcourt Horizons, 2005, p. 303). Although illegal, this resolution became the official first step toward the birth of the Declaration of Independence.

Thomas Jefferson, noted previously as being the author of the Declaration, believed that there are times when people have no choice but to form their own government. He wrote in the Declaration, "We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights that among these are Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness" (United States History, Harcourt Horizons, 2005, p. 305

The first public reading of the Declaration of Independence took place in Philadelphia on July 8, 1776. John Adams was so touched by the event that he wrote a letter to his wife expressing his belief that the birth of the Declaration of Independence should be marked by a celebration "from this time forward for evermore" (United States History, Harcourt Horizons, 2005, p. 306). Here we have the beginning of the holiday observed on July 4th. Even though the Declaration was not signed on this date, the document shows this date. The actual signing began on August 2, 1776.

Images from United States History, Harcourt Horizons, 2005, reveal a stately profile of Thomas Jefferson (Figure 4.59) The upturned collar lends an air of the common man, a gentleman farmer. Not a visionary genius and writer of perhaps one of the greatest works ever crafted by man. The Harcourt textbook also includes a copy of the Declaration of Independence (Figure 4.60). The student can observe the several different scripts employed and a rather

random, scattered, array of signatures. This may allude to the fact the names are penned not in one official signing but over time as the document traveled the colonies for ratification.

Harcourt Horizons 2005 social studies text has also included a painting by John Trumbell (Figure 4.61). This painting has become synonymous with the Declaration of Independence and portrays all the delegates present and poised to scribe their names in ratification on July 4th, 1776. In fact, only John Hancock, presiding president of the congress signed this day; many of the delegates were indeed absent but included to make this formalized painting politically correct.

The third Harcourt image is of the steeple of Independence Hall in Philadelphia which is laid over a picture of bursting skyrockets (Figure 4.62) The composition brings together an icon from the beginning of our nation and it's inception, and a symbol of the way in which we celebrate to this day.

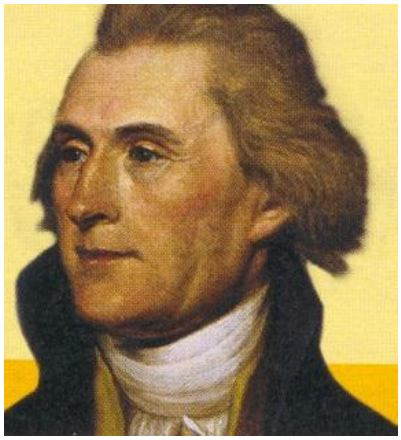


Figure 4.59. Thomas Jefferson (1743-1826). 3rd President of the United States Oil on canvas, 1791 by Charles Wilson Peale. United States History, Harcourt Horizons, 2005, p. 288.

Figure 4.60. The Declaration of Independence, 1776. United States History, Harcourt Horizons, 2005, p. 304.

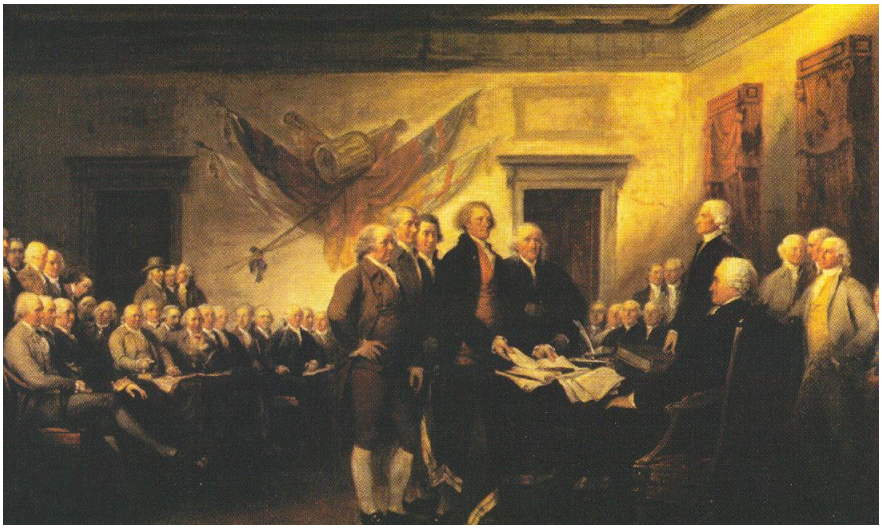


Figure 4.61. The Second Continental Congress signing the Declaration of Independence in what is today Independence Hall. Painting by John Trumbull, United States History, Harcourt Horizons, 2005, p. 305.

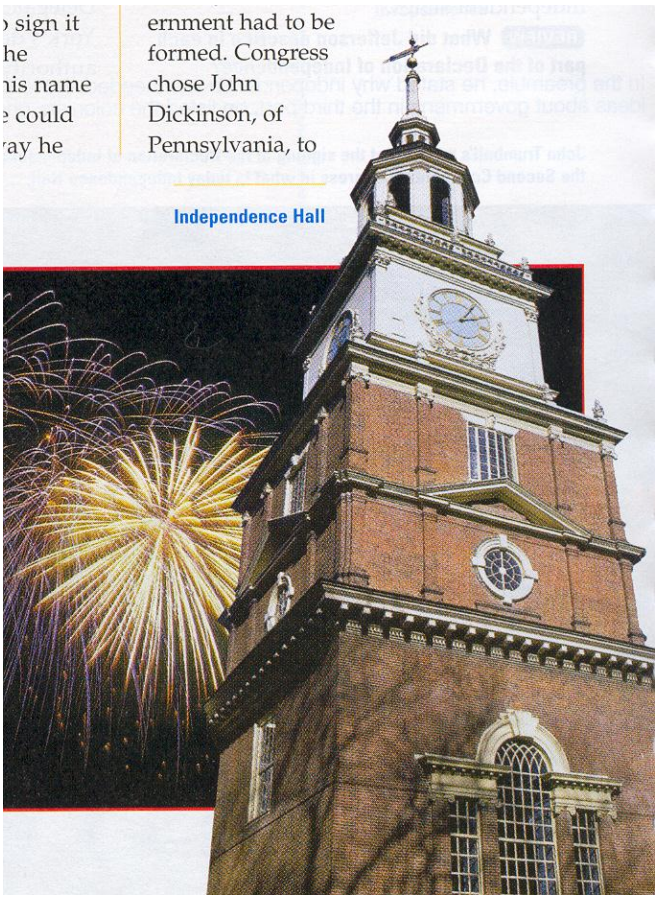


Figure 4.62. Steeple on Independence Hall with sky rockets exploding in background in celebration of the Fourth of July. Photograph. United States History, Harcourt Horizons, 2005, p. 306.

Harcourt Horizons' textbook for the fifth grader studying social studies; United States History enlist primary sources by drawing on several items to address the chapter concerning The signing of the Declaration of Independence. These items include three written documents, one photo, one artifact, two artworks, and one quote. Next in this summation, The United States, produced by Scott Foresman, will be examined for primary sources.

Primary Sources in <u>The United States</u> published by Scott Foresman

Numerous quotes can be found in the Scott Foresman 5th grade social studies textbook regarding the Declaration of Independence. Quoted are references addressing how Jefferson is chosen to author this important document. Known for his wisdom and philosophical beliefs, Thomas Jefferson was chosen as the author of the Declaration of Independence. John Adams initially recommended Thomas Jefferson to the colonial representative body as a superior candidate for writing the document. Adams is reported to have said, "You can write ten times better than I can" (<u>The United States</u>, Scott Foresman, 2005, p. 298). After some discussion within this newly formed political body, Jefferson replied, "Well, if you are decided, I will do as well as I can" (p. 298). While writing the declaration, Jefferson expressed ideas that were commonly being discussed among the colonists during this period of unrest. Among these ideas was the notion that "people are born with certain 'unalienable rights' that cannot be taken away" (2005, p. 299). Taken directly from the Declaration of Independence, Jefferson's words echo the following statement: "We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights, that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness" (2005, p. 299). .

Many entries in the declaration clearly express the colonists' feelings in regard to their soon to be former sovereign. For instance, "The history of the present King of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries" (<u>The United States</u>, Scott Foresman, 2005, p. 299). Here, Thomas Jefferson clearly criticizes King George III for decisions that were unpopular among the colonists. One such decision is noted in the statement that concerns

"imposing taxes on us without our consent" (p. 299). In response to such allegations, the document issues that following statement: "We therefore, the representatives of the United States

of America…declare that these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states" (p. 299). A brave vow ended the Declaration. The colonial representatives based the defense of their newly created nation on "our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor" (p. 299). These statements created the cornerstone for building the nation that would eventually become the United States of America. After agreeing on the content of the soon to be signed declaration, John Hancock reportedly said, "There must be no pulling different ways. We must all hang together" (p. 300). Benjamin Franklin added "We must indeed all hang together, or most assuredly we shall all hang separately" (2005, p. 300). In essence, the signers of the Declaration of Independence were well aware that they had in effect committed treason. If the outcome of what they'd begun were to be in favor of the British, all signers would be put to death for crimes against the Crown.

Images identified as primary sources regarding the Declaration of Independence included in The United States, published by Scott Foresman, 2005, begin with a painting of members of the Second Continental Congress assembled at what is commonly known as Independence Hall in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania (Figure 4.63). This painting portrays the political aspirations for a new nation set forth by those men now revered as the founding fathers, and instigated actions to break free from Britain's tyranny; Benjamin Franklin and Thomas Jefferson are among them. This painting was executed by John Trumbell. Adding to the strength surrounding the painting is a photograph of the Pennsylvania State Room where the document was created (Figure 4.64). An inset displays a painting of John Hancock, another signer and politician during the revolution (Figure 4.65). The painting is by Singleton Copley. Images that follow include an illustration of Adams, Franklin, and Jefferson reviewing a draft of the declaration (Figure 4.66), the first page

of Jefferson's rough draft (Figure 4.67), and a silver inkstand used in the signing of the Declaration of Independence (Figure 4.68). Lastly, there is the artifact Jefferson employed to write the document (Figure 4.69). This is portable writing desk he designed that was built for him by Benjamin Randolph.

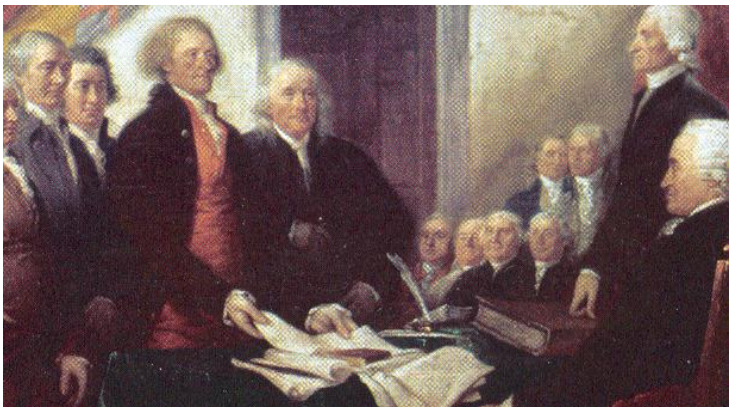


Figure 4.63. "Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: The Declaration of Independence is signed." Painting by John Trumbell. The United States, Scott Foresman, 2005, p. 294.

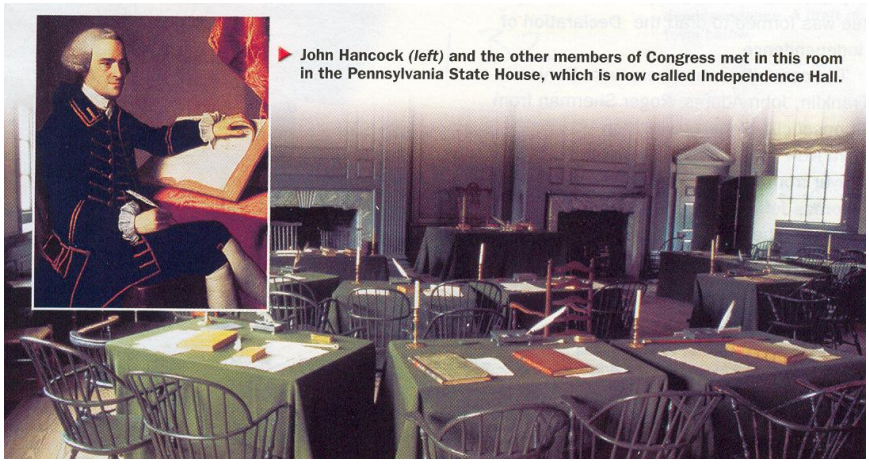


Figure 4.64. Room where John Hancock and other members of Congress met in the Pennsylvania State House to draft the Declaration of Independence. Photograph. The United States, Scott Foresman, 2005, p. 297.

Figure 4.65. John Hancock (inset) American Revolutionary politician. Canvas, by John Singleton Copley, 1765. The United States, Scott Foresman, 2005, p. 297.

Figure 4.66. Thomas Jefferson, John Adams, and Benjamin Franklin. Colored illustration. The United States, Scott Foresman, 2005, p. 297.

Figure 4.67. The first page of Thomas Jefferson's rough draft of the Declaration of Independence, written 11-28 June 1776, with verbal changes by Benjamin Franklin and John Adams noted thereon. Photograph. The United States, Scott Foresman, 2005, p. 299.

Figure 4.68. Silver inkstand used to sign the Declaration of Independence. Photograph. The United States, Scott Foresman, 2005, p. 299.

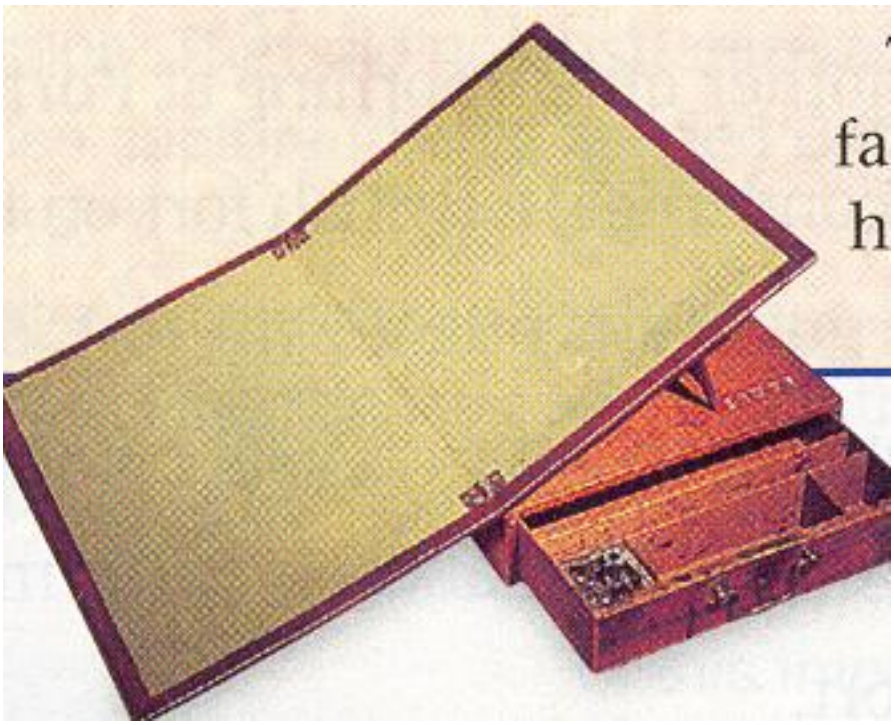


Figure 4.69. Mahogany portable writing desk designed by Thomas Jefferson and built by Benjamin Randolph, c1775. "Jefferson wrote a draft of the Declaration of Independence on this portable desk. Photograph. The United States, Scott Foresman, 2005, p. 301.

The United States, provided to the 5th grade social studies pupil, makes use of primary sources by providing these items to support the presentation of The Declaration of Independence in its textbook. Supplied are seven written documents, one photo, two artifacts, three art pieces, and four quotes. Next in this summary, Our Nation, published for 5th grade students of history by Macmillan/McGraw-Hill, furnishes primary sources through the introduction of seven written documents, one artifact, two art pieces, and seven quotes.

Primary Sources in Our Nation published by Macmillan/McGraw-Hill

The 5th grade social studies textbook published by MacMillan/McGraw-Hill, like the two previous textbooks, contains quotes concerning the Declaration of Independence as well as

excerpts from the document. To begin, the textbook cites a statement made by Henry Lee of Virginia to the Second Continental Congress. He proposed "that these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states" (Our Nation, MacMillan / McGraw-Hill, 2005, p. 278). This ideal was common in the colonies at the time preceding the American Revolution.

John Adams, an important delegate at the Second Continental Congress, convinced Thomas Jefferson that he was most suited to write the Declaration of Independence. Adams reportedly told Jefferson, "You can write ten times better than I can" (Our Nation, MacMillan / McGraw-Hill, 2005, p. 278). History records that Jefferson spent two weeks writing the Declaration of Independence. The rough draft was shown to Benjamin Franklin and John Adams and after minor changes, the three men agreed that Congress should be shown the Declaration. Jefferson wrote the Declaration in what at the time was considered clear and simple English. He wanted "to place before mankind the common sense of the subject, in terms so plain and firm as to command their assent…it intended to be an expression of the American mind." (Our Nation, MacMillan / McGraw-Hill, 2005, p. 278).

Following the approval of the Declaration, Richard Henry Lee reportedly told Jefferson that even though the delegates present at the reading had changed some of his composition, "the [Declaration] in its nature is so good that no cookery can spoil the dish" (Our Nation, MacMillan / McGraw-Hill, 2005, p. 279). According to the textbook, the Continental Congress approved the Declaration of Independence on July 4, 1776. Other sources record the Declaration as having been completed for signing on August 2 of the same year. John Hancock was the first delegate to sign the Declaration. Hancock signed his name in large letters and reportedly said, "so the king doesn't have to put on his glasses" (Our Nation, MacMillan / McGraw-Hill, 2005, p. 279). It

should be pointed out that the delegates who signed the Declaration surely must have possessed a great deal of courage because the moment each man's signature appeared on the document he was immediately branded a traitor by Britain. Benjamin Franklin reported said, "We must all hang together…or we shall all hang separately" (Our Nation, MacMillan / McGraw-Hill, 2005, p. 279). This is the fate that awaited the delegates if the upcoming revolution ended with Britain as the victor.

Thomas Jefferson drew from the writing of John Locke as he composed the Declaration of Independence. Just like Locke, Jefferson wrote of the rights that people should possess. However, instead of the "right to own property," Jefferson wrote "the pursuit of happiness" (Our Nation, MacMillan / McGraw-Hill, 2005, p. 280). The second truth Jefferson wrote of was that of the people possessing the ability to establish governments in order to "secure these rights." According to Jefferson, the government should receive their authority and power from "the consent of the governed," or all the people (Our Nation, MacMillan / McGraw-Hill, 2005, p. 280). Jefferson concluded his writing of the Declaration by echoing the words of Richard Henry Lee. He set up the argument "that these United States are, and of Right ought to be, Free and Independent States" (Our Nation, MacMillan / McGraw-Hill, 2005, p. 280). Britain did not agree with this line of thought thus making the possibility of revolution inevitable.

The responsibility Jefferson faced in writing the Declaration of Independence was one of mammoth proportions. This document basically would give birth to a new nation. The beginning of the Declaration is as follows:

> When in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to

> assume among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the Laws of Nature and of Nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.
>
> We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty, and the pursuit of happiness (Our Nation, MacMillan / McGraw-Hill, 2005, p. 280).

Clearly, Jefferson was attempting to stress through the Declaration that the new nation was blessed by God and therefore should succeed. Years later, a United States president made the statement that the Declaration succeeded in giving "hope to the world, for all future time" (Our Nation, MacMillan / McGraw-Hill, 2005, p. 282). One can surmise that Jefferson, just like the President who followed him years later, believed that the success of the nation can be attributed to the will of God. Before this time, Britain, like other countries such as France, believed in the divine right of kings which was supposedly God given. However, the colonists came to realize that personal freedom mattered more than serving a monarch. This becomes obvious when a letter written by Abigail Adams to her husband following a 1776 celebration in Boston is examined. She writes, "After dinner the King's Arms were taken down from the State House and every [symbol] of him from every place in which appeared burnt…Thus ends royal Authority to the State" (Our Nation, MacMillan / McGraw-Hill, 2005, p. 282). It must be noted that actions such as this were considered sacrilegious and punishable by death. This in itself substantiates the

belief that the delegates at the Second Continental Congress truly felt that their newfound freedom was God given and their noble cause would prevail.

Images included in the textbook Our Nation, MacMillan/McGraw-Hill, 2005, begin with a tattered draft of the Declaration of Independence in Jefferson's handwriting. (Figure 4.70) A student may wonder when viewing this picture, how many long hours he spent writing and revising in order to produce a perfect document.

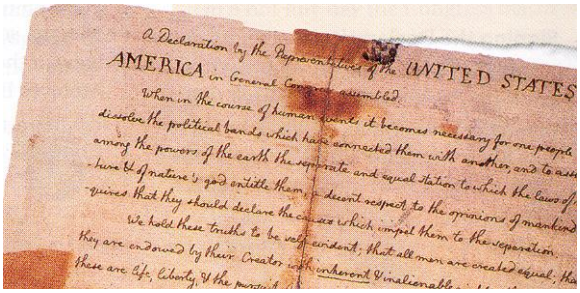

A Declaration by the Representatives of the UNITED STATES
AMERICA in General Congress assembled.
When in the course of human events it becomes necessary for one people
dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to ass
among the powers of the earth the separate and equal station to which the laws of
-ture & god entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind
-quires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.
We hold these truths to be self evident, that all men are created equal, tha
they are endowed by their Creator with inherent & inalienable
these are life, Liberty, & the

Figure 4.70. A draft of the Declaration of Independence prepared by Thomas Jefferson for a friend after Congress approved the text on 2 July 1776. Document. Our Nation, MacMillan/McGraw-Hill, 2005, p. 281.

The second image from Our Nation depicts Thomas Jefferson sitting for portrait painter Gilbert Stuart (Figure 4.71) This official picture is of Jefferson the President in later years, perhaps enjoying the fruit of his labors.

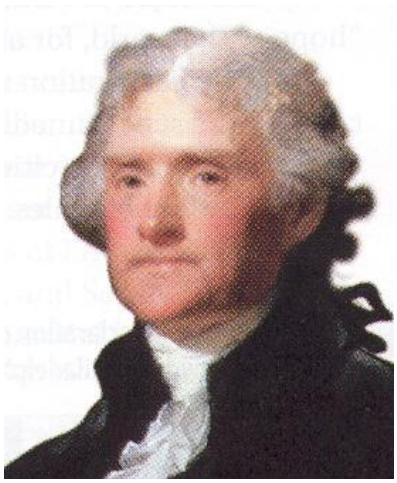


Figure 4.71. Thomas Jefferson. Painting by Gilbert Stuart. Our Nation, MacMillan/McGraw-Hill, 2005, p. 281.

The final image presented in Our Nation represents a celebratory scene where the Declaration of Independence is being read to a jubilant crowd in Philadelphia. (Figure 4.72). History reports that as copies of the declaration were distributed to the 13 colonies, large crowds of supporters were there to meet it. The student might summarize from this image that the quest for freedom had taken root in the American soil.

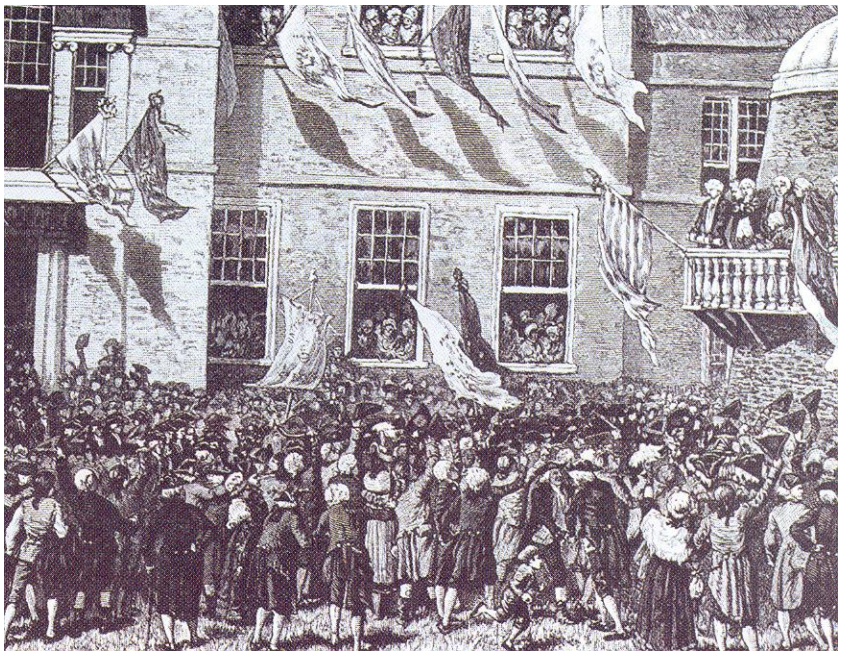


Figure 4.72. "The reading of the Declaration of Independence drew large crowds to Philadelphia." Our Nation, MacMillan/McGraw-Hill, 2005, p. 282.

The 5th grade Macmillan/McGraw-Hill social studies volume Our Nation has supplied the student numerous primary sources when presenting its section on The Declaration of Independence. As previously noted, these primary sources include seven written documents, one artifact, two art pieces, and seven quotes.

A summary of primary sources taken from three fifth grade social studies textbooks concerning the "Declaration of Independence," which brought about the birth of a new nation, begins with an analysis from United States History, published by Harcourt Horizons. Primary sources not utilized within the text are maps and quotes. There are however three written documents, one photo, one period artifact, and one example of art. The United States, produced by Scott Foresman, does not include maps, but does present six written documents, one photo, three pertinent artifacts, three pieces of art, and four quotes. Finally, Our Nation by

Macmillan/McGraw-Hill creates a chapter on the Declaration of Independence without including photos or maps. The primary sources which are used are: seven written documents, one artifact from the period, two art pieces, and seven quotes.

(Table 4.1) Total Primary Sources (by category) for the American Revolution Per Social Studies Textbook

TEXTBOOKS	Written Documents	Photos (buildings, statuary, etc.)	Quotes	Maps	Artifacts	Artwork (paintings, engravings, etc.)
United States History Harcourt Horizons	5	4	11	2	10	13
The United States Scott Foresman	9	4	23	0	7	16
Our Nation Macmillan/ McGraw-Hill	9	2	16	0	7	9

Analysis of Data

After collecting data from the three most frequently adopted fifth-grade American history social studies textbooks and analyzing the results which yielded three categories, *colonial taxation*, *retaliation among the colonists*, and *the result of tyranny in the colonies* three themes emerged. These themes include: (a) the conundrum of fact, (b) monolithic representations, and (c) verisimilitude in fifth-grade social studies textbooks. The first theme, the conundrum of fact, refers to primary sources that are inaccurate, stereotypical, gender-biased, simplified, and simply absent. The second theme, monolithic representations, are primary sources that appear in many

textbooks and are are therefore considered rigid and uniform. The third theme, verisimilitude, refers to primary sources that appear to be true, yet yield no evidence to support them.

Quotes

Through the years quotes have been spread by word of mouth and then recorded as if they are valid and the truth. Various scholars have conflicting opinions in regard to this ongoing debate. For instance, some scholars agree citing quotes as a primary source acceptable, by giving an in-text explanation that the source controversial. On the other end of the spectrum are scholars who feel that the textbook authors have analyzed, processed, and integrated these quotes into their own argument or narrative to support whatever stance they may have taken in regard to an historical event. In addition, the National Archives, creator of the primary source analysis documents used to evaluate this study's sources, does not recognize quotes as primary sources. The National Archives contends that quotes are merely secondary sources and should be treated as solely the authors' interpretation of history.

There are a number of quotes in the Scott Foresman (2005) fifth grade social studies text that focus on the Battle of Lexington and Concord. One quote belongs to John Parker, who said, "Stand your ground. Don't fire unless fired upon, but if they mean to have a war, let it begin here" (p. 288). Parker's quote suggests the Patriots should remain where they stand, and not retreat. As the action rages on, Parker's men become surrounded by the British soldiers; "Ye villains, ye rebels! Lay down your arms!" (p. 288). Accompanying these quotes at the beginning of this chapter is a painting titled "The Dawn of Freedom" (Figure 4.48). The quotes and the painting together could almost imbue the reader with a sense for that moment in history. In other words, quoted information can facilitate historical thinking. "The shot heard round the world,"

possibly one of the most famous American Revolution quotes (p. 289), is uttered during a skirmish where a shot is fired by one of two revolutionary opponents. This quote is important in the study of the American Revolution because it not only reflects the events of the time period, but also describes the effect British retaliation had on the colonists and people throughout the world.

The last quote dealing with the Battle of Lexington and Concord is attributed to British Lieutenant John Barker. According to Barker, "We were fired on from houses and behind trees… We were fired on from all sides" (p. 289). This type of warfare surprised the British soldiers because they've been taught to go into battle like gentlemen and fight in formations, instead of engaging in a type of warfare which to them resembles hunting.

The Scott Foresman textbook does offer an oral and pictorial account of British officer John Pitcairn's death. According to the text, Pitcairn leaps on the wall of the American fort at Bunker Hill and cries: "The day is ours" (p. 306). A patriot soldier immediately shoots and kills him. In the illustration, Pitcairn is shown falling backward, after being fatally wounded (Figure ?). Because the quotes and illustration are combined, a students can immerse themselves into a deeper level of historical thinking and connect the quote to the painting while interpreting what has transpired. Another quote by someone else, perhaps one of the colonists, would lead to a better understanding of the intensity of the situation. Similarly, a conflicting illustration would also assist in historical thinking. In a broader sense, these quotes can fulfill a simple goal of historical thinking as it pertains to the American Revolution; allowing the student to form their own interpretation of the feelings soldiers may have experienced on either side of the conflict. Fortunately, one of the textbooks does display examples of opposing opinions. The Harcourt

Horizons textbook (2005) contains two quotes expressing very different points of view concerning the colonists' new tax laws. One quote attributed to Thomas Whatley a member of the British parliament, the other to Samuel Adams a member of the Massachusetts legislature. Whatley states:

> We are not yet recovered from a War undertaken…for their (colonists) protection…and no time was ever so seasonable for claiming their assistance (help). The distribution is too unequal, of benefits only to the colonies, and all of the burthens (burdens) upon the country (Britain) (2005, p. 281).

John Adams, whom would come to be an author of the Declaration of Independence as well as second President of the United States, is quoted as saying, "We are told to be quiet when we see the very money which is torn from us by lawless force" (2005, p. 281).

Inclusion of the two different viewpoints by men who are both in politics, yet on opposite sides of the issue, is extremely helpful to students when participating in historical thinking. Here, two passionate men on opposing sides are quoted yet the student is given no indication as to which is right. The reader must come to their own conclusion by weighing the information they've been offered.

Written Documents

The Scott Foresman text features a primary source (with a large image of this source) for what has become commonly known as the Boston Massacre (Figures 4.33 and 4.34). A portion of a newspaper article from the 1770 *Boston Gazette and Country Journal* displays an etching of four coffins and a corresponding account. The published account reads as follows:

> Last Thursday, agreeable to a general request of the inhabitants, and by the consent of parents and friends, were carried to their grave in succession, the bodies of Samuel Gray, Samuel Maverick, James Caldwell, and Crispus Attucks, the unhappy victims who fell in the bloody massacre of Monday evening preceding! (p. 284).

Although lacking additional first-hand accounts, the article, accompanied by Paul Revere's engraving of the shooting on the same page, can help the student engaged in historical thinking to realize the power of the press. The powerful imagery is provided; first in an unsubstantiated interpretation of the shooting, then in the depiction of the coffins which definitely invokes emotion, and finally in the visualization of the funeral procession in which the colonists carry four dead men in their coffins for burial. However, as noted, this the only primary source introduced to students on the topic of the Boston Massacre.

Each textbook contains excerpts from the Declaration of Independence. However, the McMillan/McGraw-Hill text supplies an excerpt from a committee report presented at the Boston Town Meeting on November 20, 1772. An excerpt from the committee report reads: "Among the natural rights of Colonists are these: First, a right to life; Secondly, to liberty, Thirdly, to property; together with right to defend them in the best manner they can" (2005, p. 265). In addition, the report states, "All men have a right…in case of intolerable oppression, civil or religious, to leave the society they belong to, and enter into another" (p. 265). This source gives the students a glimpse at the beginnings of what would come to be one of the most famous documents in the world…the Declaration of Independence. It can foster interest in students' historical thinking by prompting them to understand what issues led to the revolution and subsequent Declaration of Independence.

Photographs

One finds a wide range of photographs in the three textbooks; of course none are from the American Revolution, since it predates the invention of cameras. However, in terms of historical thinking, some present-day photographs can be helpful to students. For example, the Harcourt Horizons textbook contains photographs of two war reenactments. The first portrays colonists dressed in white uniforms with matching hats marching across Concord's North Bridge carrying a Revolutionary Flag (Figure 4.46). This reenactment is based on the colonists fighting the British alongside a road running from Boston to Concord. The next photograph depicts Minutemen at the Battle of Concord and Lexington (Figure 4.47). The men are dressed differently in this photograph. By comparing the two photos, students may learn that some colonists were veritably soldiers, whereas others selectively joined the battles. In this case, what sparks the historical thinking process is the inclusion of period clothing.

A photograph in the Harcourt Horizons textbook conjures up the celebratory feel of the signing of the Declaration of Independence, with an image of skyrockets exploding in the background of Independence Hall's steeple (Figure 4.62). When encountering photos such as this when studying the American Revolution, students can more easily connect with particular historical moments and hypothesize about the colonists' feelings.

Statues

Two primary sources are comprised of statues in the textbooks examined in this study; both might enhance ones historical thinking. The first, found in Harcourt Horizons, is a statue of Paul Revere which stand near the Old North Church in Boston. (Figure 4.42). This statue, even when accompanied by Henry Wadsworth Longfellow's 1863 poem titled "Paul Revere's Ride"

and a description of the event in the narrative, falls short of telling a story about the man and the event. Paul Revere is on horseback and appears to be waving to a crowd as if he is part of a parade. Without seeing the statue, the reader might conceptualize a man pushing his horse to gallop at top speed, that he may alert colonists of the impending attack from British soldiers. While Longfellow's prose evoke almost hysterical imagery of the ride, the statue appears rather jubilant yet serene. Another view of the statue, supplied by the MacMillan/McGraw-Hill (2005) textbook, still falls short in aiding the reader's interpretation (Figure 4.45). Each statue represents a man who is pristinely dressed and waving as if he is receiving accolades from an adoring crowd. In other words, the narrative and the visual collide. This in itself sets the stage for historical thinking because if historical information does not quite fit, students are forced into forming their own interpretations.

The second statue, also found in the MacMillan/McGraw-Hill textbook, is that of a Minuteman in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania (Figure 4.52). The term Minuteman originates from the fact these men must be ready at a minute's notice to take up their arms against the British. This statue is more visually accurate than that of Paul Revere. His clothing and accoutrements are more appropriate; he's dressed as a farmer. Draped over his left shoulder and across his chest lays a leather bag that holds items such as a horn for gunpowder, flint, lead balls, and stuffing; he carries as musket from the time period. His facial expression also lends to historical thinking. When observing this particular work of art, one cannot help but see a sense of defiance, retaliation and perseverance in the subject's face.

Cartoons / Posters

Examples of cartoons and posters connected to the seven historical events are not depicted in any of the three social studies textbooks being studied.

Artifacts

I call special attention to three artifacts pictured in the textbooks studied. The first artifact to discuss is the revolutionary period musket, known as the Militiaman's Fowler (Figure 4.53). These muskets, which have grown to be symbolic of the American Revolution, were made from parts of retired, worn-out weapons. (The musket preceded the rifle.) To operate this musket, one pours gunpowder into the hammer and pulls the trigger, which releases the hammer and sparks ignition of the gunpowder, thus forcing the ball, or bullet, through the barrel. Students in their attempt to picture battle conditions during the Revolutionary War will find photographs such as this interesting if not beneficial.

Another artifact warranting attention is that of a battle drum used for cadence when marching (Figure 4.49). Typically, a soldier wears drums for the purpose of pounding out a beat to which the infantry will march. Again, understanding how these items are used in action can bolster one's ability to think historically about events which transpired on the battlefield between colonists and the British.

Lanterns, like the musket, have become symbolic of the American Revolution, due, in part, to the ride of Paul Revere. History tells us that Revere looks for one or two lanterns to be displayed in the bell tower of the Old North Church before he sets out on his famous nighttime ride. If only a single lantern hangs in the belfry of the church, it indicated that the British would march toward Lexington and Concord by land, it two, the British arrive by sea. A figure in the Harcourt Horizon textbook portrays one of these lanterns (Figure 4.41). When viewing on the

actual lanterns used on that now famous night, it may conger up thoughts of witnessing that solitary lamplight from a street below, thus increasing historical understanding, especially in conjunction with the statue of Paul Revere and the event's narrative through poetry.

Paintings

Paintings are the last category of acceptable primary sources that the National Archives acknowledges. This category is largest when focusing on the dominance of other. When leafing through the pages of the three chosen history textbooks the student finds paintings to be the most prevalent primary source, and yielding the most information. Paintings are excellent vehicles for historical thinking because they not only represent the event under study but also contain biases which add extensively to the level of meaning, although artwork relevant to the purpose of this study and make available to the reader is somewhat one-sided. Various paintings are featured in these chapters that coincide with quotes, and therefore, affect historical thinking. For the novice, biases in paintings are usually not glaringly apparent; however the subconscious will often recognize the artist's feelings. One such painting is titled "The Battle of Lexington" (Figure 4.48). While viewing this painting, the reader's focus is drawn to the colonists on foot; the British are on horseback as if looking down upon the colonists. Here the artist has made it paramount that the British soldiers' red jackets stand out, as red subconsciously evokes feelings of power and uneasiness. Even today it is customary for those who wish control over situation to sport the red "power tie." Paintings do more than portray an event or person; they suggest human emotion by allowing the viewer to experience shared joy, pain, suffering, and a multitude of emotions in the same way a photograph moves people today.

Chapter V

Driven by a twelve year teaching career and a passion for teaching elementary social studies and history, and also ties to that history through descendents traceable back to a revolutionary soldier, this researcher pursued a qualitative case study intended to shed light upon the content and context of primary sources in fifth grade U.S. history textbooks. . When critically perusing these textbooks, research found that while a varied assortment of primary sources are provided for students, the array and assortment of primary sources has deficiencies. Opportunities for analyzing and discussing the primary sources are provided, however taken as a whole the primary sources contain inaccuracies, bias, and stereotype. As the previous chapter illustrates, the salient events during the American Revolution offer many opportunities for the inclusion of primary sources which are delivered in the form of quotes, photographs, statues, cartoons/posters, artifacts, and paintings.

Statement of Purpose

The purpose of this work is to reveal how primary sources provided in some textbooks are portrayed and how often they are focused on a single perspective. Teachers need to understand that multiple perspectives presented through historical sources may enhance a student's ability to think historically and critically. Their understanding may assist them in selecting additional primary sources for use in supplementing the textbook.

Research Question

Examining the American Revolution units of three widely adopted fifth grade American History textbooks serves to provide answers to the research question. The research question that

guided this study is how do textbooks provide elementary learners an opportunity to examine primary sources related to the American Revolution?

Review of the Methodology

A qualitative methodology guided this case study. Qualitative research was employed to gather and analyze data. This method of research helped the researcher provide in-depth description and subsequent narrative.

Three Themes

The students of today are worldlier and more clever than previous generations. They frequently become self-enlightened to the fact that all pieces of history do not neatly fit into their understanding of the world. The position of this research is that American history, through careful re-evaluation in the use of primary sources, could evolve into a more hermeneutic presentation of our past. Three themes emerged from the data analyzed for this study: conundrum of fact, monolithic representation, and verisimilitude. The next section explains each theme and provides recommendations for additional research.

Theme 1 - The Conundrum of Fact

The importance of including quality primary sources in social studies textbooks is essential if students are to learn to think critically and to understand multiple perspectives. As noted earlier in this dissertation, historical sources are overwhelmingly credited with being objective, truthful accounts of the past but are not exempt from human error, bias, and stereotype. Because primary sources are provided from a personal perspective, one must remember three things about them: first, they may not be unequivocally accurate, second, they

may exclude certain details, and third, they may be rife with particular biases; as such, students must learn to carefully analyze primary sources.

Another conundrum of fact about primary sources to consider is that they are almost always portrayed from a male point of view. We know that, other than a handful of females, men were typically the ones recording our nation's events. According to VanSledright, the majority of individuals we now study and have studied in the past have the commonality of being "dead, white," and "male" (p. 4). One could surmise that the history portrayed in textbooks that has actually reached today's public has not only been filtered through time but also through the authors of the textbooks themselves. . Vansledright (2002), seeks to address this problem when he explains that "historical thinking…produces the sort of understanding of the past exhibited by those with deep experience" who sort "through a complex regimen of investigative techniques" using "artifacts and documents that can tell stories about the time, place, and events under scrutiny" (p. 6). Upon doing so, students should be called upon during their study of American history to make judgments about the past while determining why an event, or events, are important. Seixas (1993) sees historical thinking involving "historical epistemology, that is, students' ability to refine, revise, and add to their picture of history, either through new evidence or through reliance on historical authorities" (p. 303). Students can develop an understanding of the past that is both unique and personal. Historical thinking encourages students to make their own decisions when evaluating primary sources and constructing an image of past events.

One historical event stands as a good example of the conundrum of fact as evidenced by the primary sources analyzed in this study. The event that is commonly known as the Boston Massacre was in reality not a massacre. Five male colonists died from gunshot wounds inflicted

by British soldiers during this event. According to Sanchez (2005), "the soldiers had been attacked by a mob and, because their lives were in eminent danger, had the right to defend themselves. A mob – colonial or otherwise – had provoked a justifiable action of self-defense" (p. 268). Regardless of being found innocent and having only killed five colonists, the event is continually referred to in textbooks as a massacre just as it is in the three textbooks under analysis in this dissertation.

Other similarities (or consistencies) found in the three textbooks that are attributed to the Boston Massacre began with quotes, which indicate the terms Colonists often used to describe British soldiers. All three textbooks used the term *lobsters* when referring to them. This can be attributed to the red coat the soldiers regularly wore as part of their uniform. The Scott Foresman text includes the slang term "bloody back" in reference to the British uniform (2005, p. 276). In addition, the Harcourt Horizons text included the term "bloody back" as well as "redcoats" (2005, p. 284). The inclusion of the term "lobster" and the similar terms "bloody back" and "redcoat" in all the three textbooks gave an overwhelming impression that the colonists felt similar, if not equal resentment about the British soldiers being stationed in Boston. In the area of images, one is common to all three textbooks. This image is the rendering by Paul Revere which depicts British soldiers lined up regiment style with rifles pointed and firing at the colonists (Figure 4.27). In the background there is a British officer with his sword raised as if signaling for the soldiers to fire. The monolithic representation here suggests that the British soldiers are the enemy as opposed to fellow countrymen policing and protecting the colonies, and were not concerned about the welfare or rights of the colonists. Several other paintings give the reader the same impression. An additional image found in the textbooks is a portrait of Crispus Attucks

(Figure 4.25). Attucks was the only African-American killed in the riot. In this portrait, Attucks is dressed formally, which gives the reader the image of an individual of respect and virtue. This image adds to the conundrum of fact surrounding the Boston Massacre that the colonists were victims and not riotous, law-breaking criminals that needed to be controlled.

When considering common perspectives among the three textbooks, each gives the impression that it was British soldiers who were to blame for the bloodshed and not the colonists. This holds true even though the Macmillan/McGraw-Hill (2005) text contains the following quote by Crispus Attucks: "The way to get rid of these soldiers is to attack the main guard" (p. 264). Regardless of the implication that Attucks led a riot intended to harm British soldiers, the textbooks utilize extensively primary sources that, at the very least, are biased, stereotypical, and inaccurate. It should be noted, that while the Boston Massacre as portrayed in the three American history textbooks analyzed for this study includes an African American (Crispus Attucks), only two primary sources in the textbooks portray African Americans and only two portray women. One dilemma of textbook publishers for future versions of American history textbooks will continue to be how to utilize primary sources effectively and fairly.

Theme Two-Monolithic Representation

The second theme found in the analysis of fifth grade American history textbooks is that of monolithic representation. This theme is represented by the representation of the legendary ride of Paul Revere. Historical sources suggest the ride was to serve two purposes. First, minutemen were to be alerted when the British set off for Concord from Boston. The patriot militias did not know if the British soldiers were approaching by land or by sea. The planned arrival in Concord was to seize weapons that the militia had been storing for approximately one

year. The second reason was to alert Sam Adams and John Hancock that the British were coming to Concord. The British had orders to arrest both men because they were leading supporters of the Sons of Liberty.

Paul Revere, a silversmith in Boston, was to alert the colonists as to the method of travel the British are taking to reach Concord. Revere waited for a signal revealed in the steeple of the Old North Church before setting out on his ride. If the British were withdrawing from Boston by land, one lighted lantern would be displayed in the steeple. Two lighted lanterns would signal that the British were going by sea. It should be noted that colonists caught engaging in such treacherous behavior would be tried for treason against the Crown, and punished by their death.

Two of the textbooks contain the same written document that serves as a monolithic representation of Revere's ride. The document is "Paul Revere's Ride" by Henry Wadsworth Longfellow. The Scott Foresman text supplies only the first two stanzas of the poem. The first begins with "Listen my children and you shall hear; Of the midnight ride of Paul Revere" while the second stanza ends with "Through every Middlesex village and farm; For the country folk to be up and to arm" (Scott Foresman, 2005, p. 287). The MacMillan/McGraw-Hill textbook published the poem in its entirety ending with "In the hour of darkness and peril and need; The people will waken and listen to hear; The hurrying hoof-beats of that steed; And the midnight message of Paul Revere" (2005, p. 257). This poem has created a consistently accepted and now galvanized description of that famous ride, and continues to influence students in imagining this act as exhilaratingly heroic whereas, in reality it was a dangerous, even treasonous undertaking.

Adding to the monolithic representation that Longfellow's poem creates in two of the textbooks are the following primary sources: an artifact, a sculpture, an engraving, and a

painting. The artifact, appearing in the Harcourt Horizons textbook, is a photograph of one of the actual lanterns used in the steeple of the Old North Church (Figure 4.41). Accompanying this lantern/artifact is a statue of Paul Revere that stands near the front of the Old North Church (Figure 4.42). Even without Longfellow's poem, these two entities work together in forming a monolithic representation of the event that not only suggests heroism but also gives credence to the rightness of Revere's actions. The MacMillan/McGraw-Hill textbook included the same poem of Longfellow and the same statue as was pictured in the Harcourt Horizon textbook. MacMillan/McGraw-Hill also featured a painting of Revere's ride from an aerial view (Figure 4.44). From these primary sources, the student is likely to internalize the content that a monolithic representation provides: that Paul Revere's ride was nothing but heroic.

Theme 3 –Verisimilitude

Theme three focuses on the importance of this research project. Five areas of thought that collectively address its significance include: to whom the research material is important, diversity, multiculturalism, reasons why we should be concerned, and possible solutions. Several inquiries refer to these areas: do the American Revolution primary sources provided in the selected social studies textbooks adequately facilitate students' historical thinking, do these primary sources create an environment in which all students can practice historical thinking successfully given that the present day classroom can be considered diverse, and do these primary sources in regard to historical thinking lend themselves to multicultural education?

Important to whom?

Primary sources in social studies textbooks should provide an array of conflicting viewpoints in order that students can utilize historical thinking begin to develop their own

interpretation of history. When the authors of social studies textbooks highlight an historical event, they should present it from a multi perspective viewpoint. If students are exposed only to one perspective in the study of history without investigating historical events with a critical and multiple perspective lens, they may be alienated. Students come to the study of history with divergent backgrounds and interests. For example, excluding women who played significant roles in the American Revolution serves to diminish the role of women historically. All students deserve a multi-dimensional portrayal of American history. Accepting diversity among students, as well as implementing it in social studies textbooks, is integral to effective learning. Students from diverse backgrounds can more readily understand the past if they are exposed to various perspectives. And, as this study portrays, the utilization of diverse primary sources is critical to the mission of historical inquiry. Classroom environments which focus upon, rather than ignore, diverse backgrounds of students and facilitate opportunities for students to learn from a rich history told through multiple perspectives, are most likely to be places where students learn effectively.

Multiculturalism

A multicultural curriculum is one based on the notion of helping students from varying cultures to understand one another, as well as learn to recognize similarities and differences in each other's lives. Through multicultural education, teachers acknowledge the diversity present in every class and among every student. Classroom materials, such as textbooks, should emphasize this diversity, as opposed to suggesting that every student should assimilate a single, dominant culture. The basis for undertaking a multicultural curriculum comes from the belief that no culture should be repressed, as doing so, weakens society as a whole. The acceptance of

multicultural curriculum is especially helpful to the process of interpreting primary sources via historical thinking. Recognizing an increasingly diverse student population necessitates the inclusion of a more thorough history in United States history textbooks. Anyon (1995) concurred when she recommended that the educational system "choose reforms that respond to a multicultural focus to curriculum" (p. 77). However, Americans might be uncomfortable with some of the information textbooks might include. Apple (2001) has supported the premise that textbook writers realize "that the story of the United States is also the story of racial oppression. Without that part of the story, there is no story" (p. vi). Therefore, textbook publishers should include historical information and primary sources representing diverse perspectives with the intention of assisting teachers and their students to think critically about America's past through historical investigations and class discussions.

In addition to including less-than-admirable moments in this nation's history, textbook publishers might consider adding content that would reach a greater spectrum of students. Today's textbooks tend to focus on middle class situations. This can initially generate student apathy and boredom, eventually inspiring a disdain for textbooks because the information presented does not relate to the students' understanding of the world. Textbooks of the future should mindfully present diverse primary sources that reflect the realities of diverse learners, if learners are to be equipped with the necessary tools for successfully practicing and mastering historical thinking.

Thinking about the Student and Improving Textbooks

Every educator should be aware that students possess a broad spectrum of attributes, all of which are prevalent in American education. Banks (1993) has named nine substantial

differences among students: race, gender, socio-economic status, nationality, ethnic group, abilities and disabilities, religion, and geographic region. Instructors should see the student as a diverse whole. In doing so, teachers can maximize every student's academic accomplishments. The American educational system does not always value diversity in the classroom; some even view it negatively (Noguera, 1999). Reasons for this often stem from the difficulty that accompanies making lesson plans which try to address the needs of all students. However, researchers have conducted studies which clearly demonstrate that increased diversity in the classroom can benefit students.

Kurlaender and Yun (2002), conducted a study based on the effects of diversity among students, The results of the study suggest that students' "school experiences . . . increased their level of understanding diverse points of view, and enhanced their desire to interact with people of different backgrounds in the future" (p. 2). These findings corroborates the claim that multicultural education can increase academic success (Gay, 2001). As student bodies across the nation increasingly become more culturally diverse, academia must approach education in a new way, capitalizing on student differences in lieu of viewing them as inconvenient or threatening Banks (2004) has created a method for addressing multicultural education through a number of "dimensions" (p. 4). These dimensions include: "(a) content integration, (b) the knowledge construction process, (c) prejudice reduction, (d) an equity pedagogy, and (e) an empowering school culture and social structure" (p. 4). The researcher's interests in a pedagogy of multicultural education, and the results of this study suggest that the traditional American history curriculum represented by textbooks, can be greatly enhanced by attending to the dimensions proposed by Banks.

Why should we be concerned?

Some scholars believe that textbook content is carefully orchestrated. According to Apple and King (1977), "The hidden curriculum, the tacit teaching of social and economic norms and expectations to students in schools, is not as hidden or mindless as many educators believe" (p. 341). The selection of primary sources may not be accidental. Content is actually designed in order that the status quo not only be maintained, but also guarded. Apple (2001) stated that "this nation was built around racial exploitation and . . . still has a racial power structure" (p. vi). American educators must consider whether some textbooks continue to encourage the status quo. Thus, teachers, teacher educators, and researchers should critically analyze textbooks, as has this study, to determine the biases, inaccuracies, and stereotypes represented within. Members of the academic community must speak out against any inherent injustices they find within textbook content..

Possible Solutions

Publisher inclusion of primary sources that represent conflicting accounts of historical events may enable students to more successfully connect with the material and consequently think historically. However, the solution may not end there. Publishers may want to consider the diverse audience for whom these texts are intended and the type of language in which they are written. According to Anyon (1995),

> teachers, black and white, are in the unenviable position of being asked to impart a middle-class curriculum, written in a language that differs from and
>
> interferes with the students' own language and that in most cases is presented to
>
> students in textbooks that are too difficult for them to fully comprehend. (p. 80)

Under these conditions a heightened level of disassociation comes to the forefront and the teacher-pupil relationship becomes blurred. Educators then often perceive/diagnose the student as "anxious and angry" and "difficult to teach" (p. 80).

In conclusion, by analyzing the primary sources in fifth grade U.S. history textbooks, this study identified their shortcomings and recommended possible solutions. Continued use of primary sources in textbooks, with increased attention to multiple perspectives , might serve to diminish student dissociation from history and offer students alternate truths about that past. This may not only inspire them in their public school studies, but will hopefully set a foundation upon which their references to the past can lend them a more richer perspective on life. This could ultimately serve to benefit all students in their future endeavors, both academically but better still adding a more positive perspective to the ever-changing diverse world.

Future Research

The continued research of subject material, the American history textbook content, from which this document is derived expands the study of primary sources within the three textbooks selected for this dissertation. In addition, the scope should be broadened to include textbooks which have not been examined. The basis of this project centers on having a clear understanding of the content and context of primary sources in American history textbooks. This work could possibly goad textbook writers and the publishers into reviewing and rethinking the information that is now commonly published, and acknowledge how prevalent the origin myth (i.e. historical events which change over time) is in the textbooks made available to the public. Opportunities for future research could be guided by the limitation of this study: only one unit of instruction was examined, out of the six presented in the United States History textbooks. Certainly, other

units of instruction should be analyzed for content and context. This study focused only on three fifth grade textbooks; future studies might examine the full array of U.S. history textbooks, typically found at the seventh grade and tenth grade levels. Content analyses of U.S. history books in the future might include other topics, such as historical empathy, multiple perspectives, and historical reasoning. It should also be noted that the textbooks under examination are currently under adoption in the state of Texas, but new textbooks will be previewed in the next two years. The Texas Board of Education adopted new content standards in 2010, with elements that were controversial and newsworthy. New textbooks will make use of the new content standards and thus will need to be examined carefully so that teachers may present information in a balanced manner.

Appendix A: Written Document Analysis

1. Type of document (Check one):

____Newspaper

____Map

____Advertisement

____Letter

____Telegram

____Congressional Record

____Patent

____Press Release

____Census Report

____Memorandum

____Report

____Other

2. Unique physical characteristics of the document (Check one or more):

____Interesting Letterhead

____Notations

____Handwritten

____"RECEIVED" stamp

____Typed

____Other

____Seals

3. Date(s) of document:

4. Author (or creator) of the document, include position (title):

5. For what audience was the document written?

6. Document information (There are many possible ways to answer A-E.)

A. List three things the author said that you think are important:

B. Why do you think this document was written?

C. What evidence in the document helps you know why it was written? Quote from the document.

D. List two things the document tells you about life in the United States at the time it was written:

E. Write a question to the author that is left unanswered by the document:

(retrieved on 3/4/07 from www.archives.gov/education/lessons/worksheets/index.html)

Appendix B: Photograph Analysis

Step 1: Observation

A. Study the photograph for 2 minutes. Form an overall impression of the photograph and then examine individual items. Next, divide the photo into quadrants and study each section to see what new details become visible.

B. List any information you know about the photograph, i.e., where it was taken, the photographer, the year, etc.

C. Use the chart below to list people, objects, and activities in the photograph.

People

Objects

Activities

Step 2: Inference

Based on what you have observed above, list three things you might infer from this photograph:

1.

2.

3.

Step 3: Questions

A. What questions does this photograph raise in your mind?

B. Where could you find answers to them?

(retrieved on 3/4/07 from www.archives.gov/education/lessons/worksheets/index.html)

Appendix C: Cartoon Analysis

Level 1

Visuals: Words (not all cartoons include words)

1. List the objects or people you see in the cartoon.

2. Identify the cartoon caption and/or title.

3. Locate three words or phrases used by the cartoonist to identify objects or people within the cartoon.

4. Record any important dates or numbers that appear in the cartoon.

Level 2

Visuals: Words

1. Which of the objects on your list are symbols?

2. What do you think each symbol means?

3. Which words or phrases in the cartoon appear to be the most significant? Why do you think so?

4. List adjectives that describe the emotions portrayed in the cartoon.

Level 3

A. Describe the action taking place in the cartoon.

B. Explain how the words in the cartoon clarify the symbols.

C. Explain the message of the cartoon.

D. What special interest groups would agree/disagree with the cartoon's message? Why?

(retrieved on 3/4/07 from www.archives.gov/education/lessons/worksheets/index.html)

Appendix D: Poster Analysis

1. What are the main colors used in the poster?

2. What symbols (if any) are used in the poster?

3. If a symbol is used, is it

A. Clear (easy to interpret)?

B. Memorable?

C. Dramatic?

4. Are the messages in the poster primarily visual, verbal, or both?

5. Who do you think is the intended audience for the poster?

6. What does the Government hope the audience will do?

7. What Government purpose(s) is served by the poster?

8. The most effective posters use symbols that are unusual, simple, and direct. Is this an effective poster?

(retrieved on 3/4/07from www.archives.gov/education/lessons/worksheets/index.html)

Appendix E: Map Analysis

1. Type of map (Check one):

____Raised relief map

____Bird's-eye map

____Topographic map

____Artifact map

____Political map

____Satellite photograph/mosaic

____Contour-line map

____Pictograph

____Natural resource map

____Weather map

____Military map

____Other

2. Unique physical qualities of the map (Check one or more):

____Compass

____Name of mapmaker

____Handwritten

____Title

____Legend (key)

____Date

____Notations

____Other

____Scale

3. Date of map:

4. Creator of the map:

5. Where was the map produced?

6. Map information

A. List three things in this map that you think are important.

B. Why do you think this map was drawn?

C. What evidence in the map suggests why it was drawn?

D. What information does this map add to the textbook's account of this event?

E. Does the information in this map support or contradict information that you have read about this event? Explain.

F. Write a question to the mapmaker that is left unanswered by this map.

(retrieved on 3/4/07 from www.archives.gov/education/lessons/worksheets/index.html)

Appendix F: Artifact Analysis

1. Type of artifact (Describe the material from which it was made: bone, pottery, metal, wood, stone, leather, glass, paper, cardboard, cotton, plastic, other material.):

2. Special qualities of the artifact (Describe how it looks and feels: shape, color, texture, size, weight, movable parts, anything printed, stamped or written on it.):

3. Uses of the artifact

A. What might it have been used for?

B. Who might have used it?

C. Where might it have been used?

D. When might it have been used?

4. What does the artifact tell us?

A. What does it tell us about the technology of the time in which it was made and used?

B. What does it tell us about the life and times of the people who made it and used it?

C. Can you name a similar item today?

(retrieved on 3/4/07 from www.archives.gov/education/lessons/worksheets/index.html)

Appendix G: Painting Analysis

1. What was the creator's purpose?

2. Why this pose?

3. Why that perspective?

4. Why that framing?

5. Why this distance?

6. Why this subject?

7. What was included?

8. What was excluded?

(retrieved on 3/4/07 from http://rs5.loc.gov/learn/lessons/psources/stufile.html)

Appendix H: Sculpture Analysis

1. What was the creator's purpose?

2. Why this pose?

3. What type of material is it made of?

4. Why this subject?

5. What was included?

6. What was excluded?

(retrieved on 3/4/07 from http://rs5.loc.gov/learn/lessons/psources/stufile.html)

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